

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH COMMITTEES OF
THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

AND

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

Volume XV.
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1924.

\$2.00 a year.
25 cents a copy.

CONTENTS

The History Inquiry: Report of the Director, Professor Edgar Dawson

| | PAGE |
|---|------|
| I. Stabilizing History Teaching - - - - - | 239 |
| II. The Arrival of Unrest - - - - - | 242 |
| III. The Re-organization of Secondary Education - - - - - | 243 |
| IV. The Committee on Social Studies - - - - - | 246 |
| V. Summary of Development - - - - - | 249 |
| VI. Cross-Section of Present Curricula - - - - - | 252 |
| VII. Experimenting with a Test - - - - - | 260 |
| VIII. General Impressions - - - - - | 268 |

Book Reviews, edited by Prof. J. M. Gambrill, 272; Notes on Periodical Literature, by Dr. G. B. Richards, 276; News of Associations, 276; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 278; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 278.

Published monthly, except July, August and September, by the McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1924, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post-office at Phila., Pa., under act of March 3, 1879



Ginn and Company Announce a New World History

OUR WORLD TODAY AND YESTERDAY A History of Modern Civilization ROBINSON-SMITH-BREASTED

HOW IS IT PROPORTIONED? Of the 600 pages, 400 are devoted to the modern period including a full discussion of the important events of the last fifty years. The first 200 pages give an orderly, unhurried account of man's progress from the Stone Age to the 18th century.

WHAT IS ITS OBJECT? To present the essential facts of world history so they throw light on today's difficulties, and so they become a part of the mental processes of high-school boys and girls.

Boston New York Chicago London Atlanta Dallas Columbus San Francisco

FOUNDATIONS OF AMERICAN NATIONALITY

By EVARTS BOUTELL GREENE,
Professor of American History, Columbia University
670 pages. With Maps and Illustrations, \$2.60

A HISTORY of the United States from its beginning in Europe down to the adoption and establishment of the Constitution (1789). The story begins with the Old World society from which the early colonists came, their inherited traditions, and the characteristics of the age in which they lived.

The book lays emphasis on the racial, religious, and political elements which have gone to the formation of American nationality. The political and economic history of the various colonies and of the new nation formed in 1776 receives thorough and adequate treatment.

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY
New York Cincinnati Chicago Boston Atlanta

Thwaites and Kendall's History of the United States FOR GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

Revised and Enlarged Edition

THIS standard textbook has been thoroughly revised—the earlier chapters under the supervision of Professor E. E. Robinson of Leland Stanford University, and the later chapters by Professor F. L. Paxson of the University of Wisconsin. Entirely new plates have been made, with new maps and new illustrations.

In thousands of schools today this text is helping to make interested students of history, and good American citizens. It is pronounced the *most teachable* text in United States history.

561 pages of illustrated text; 21 pages of suggestions to teachers; 31 pages of Appendix including the Constitution with an analysis and an outline, also statistical tables. 17 pages of Analytical Index.

\$1.60, postpaid.

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY
BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO SAN FRANCISCO



AUTHOR

Albert H. Sanford
M. A., Associate Author of James and Sanford "American History" "Our Government" and "Government in State and Nation"



AUTHORS

Hutton Webster, Ph.D., University of Missouri; **Daniel C. Knowlton**, Ph.D., Columbia University; **Charles Downer Hasen**, Ph.D., Columbia University.

AMERICAN HISTORY MAPS

Set of 32 (complete) \$30.00

Set of 16 18.75

Durable manila, edges taped and bound. Stand and manual included.

A series of 32 maps, Covering American history from and including the Age of Discovery up to the present time.

In accord with present methods of teaching, the maps give special attention to the economic and social phases of American History. History is shown as growth and continuity, as related wholes, not as isolated events. The development of the West as well as the East has been given adequate treatment.

In order to make the maps clear and readable, Professor Sanford has aimed to feature but one topic,—one set of facts on each map, but to show that well. Five editions appearing in close succession testify to the fact that he has succeeded.

Examine a Set.

Order these Maps on approval on the special terms stated below. Check and mail the coupon.

A.J. NYSTROM & CO. 2249 Calumet Avenue
SCHOOL MAPS, GLOBES, AND CHARTS Chicago, Illinois

Send us for examination a set of:

- ☐ American History ☐ Ancient European History
☐ Medieval and Modern European History

If the maps are satisfactory we will, after 10 days, remit according to mounting selected, otherwise return

Signed _____

Town _____

Complete
Equipment
For
All Texts

EUROPEAN HISTORY MAPS

Set of any 26 \$50.75

Set of any 18 36.75

On heavy manila paper with edges tape bound, with solid chart head and tripod stand.

These European History maps are divided into two sets. First—Ancient History, which includes 18 maps. Second—Medieval and Modern History series which includes 26 maps.

Maps of both series are interchangeable. These maps are distinguished by bold clear colors and by distinct lettering, both necessary to secure visibility and legibility at proper school room distance. Maps reflect the new history perspective throughout, emphasizing Economic, Social, and Religious as well as the customary Military features.

This Series is acknowledged by authorities everywhere as the supreme achievement in European History Maps.

Examine a Set.

them at your expense.

or

I am interested in purchasing maps at a future date. Kindly send me without obligations the following booklet:

- ☐ Sanford American History Booklet
☐ W-K-H-European History booklet

Position _____

State _____

We have issued the Revised Edition of

ADVANCED AMERICAN HISTORY

By DR. S. E. FORMAN

And praise for the book has come in from every part of the country. This history, which before was one of the most extensively used texts, seems most likely to go far beyond its former record.

ADVANCED AMERICAN HISTORY has been completely rewritten and reset. The emphasis, both in space and purpose, has been changed. Less attention has been paid to the colonial and earlier periods of American history, and over one-third of the text is devoted to the era since the Civil War. Thus the book is in keeping with the best modern thought as to the proper emphasis for the different periods of our history.

The book is replete with pedagogical aids. Each chapter is prefaced by a summary of its contents and is followed by suggestive questions and bibliographies for collateral reading. Topics for Outline Review make it possible for the student to correlate all his information about the big general subjects. A large part of the pictures are new and have been chosen with especially care to make them historically interpretative. They are not "just something to look at." Sketch maps abound throughout the book, and it would be difficult to excel the full-page and double-page maps.

If you do not know "the Forman," write to us immediately

THE CENTURY CO.

353 Fourth Avenue
New York

2126 Prairie Avenue
Chicago

REFERENCE STUDIES IN MEDIEVAL HISTORY

by *James Westfall Thompson*

Professor of Medieval History in the University of Chicago

A manual that will serve as a reference guide to the great bulk of printed material available in libraries everywhere. A syllabus of subjects for students who are familiar with the outlines of medieval history.

Part I The Dark Ages 180-814

Part II The Feudal Age 814-1291

Part III End of the Middle Ages 1291-1498

Each part, bound in paper, \$1.00, postpaid \$1.10

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

5840 Ellis Avenue

Chicago, Illinois

McCONNELL-MADE

—the Most Widely Used

SCHOOL MAPS

in America

After 30 years' experience, we have scrapped all our old plates and have produced a superior type of map, at low prices. Each map is clear, beautifully lithographed, and full size. Only the necessary information is shown; unnecessary detail has been omitted. All useless insert maps have been avoided.

The accuracy of McConnell Maps is vouched for by the following authorities:

| | |
|--|---|
| ROLLO MILTON TRYON, Ph. D. University of Chicago | ARTHUR GUY TERRY, Ph. D. Northwestern University |
| CLYDE LECLARE GROSE, Ph. D. Northwestern University | ERNEST LAUER, M. A. Northwestern University |
| ISAAC JOSLIN COX, Ph. D. Northwestern University | |

THE UNIVERSITY SERIES

| | |
|---|---------|
| Ancient History, Set No. 24. 38 maps, 52 x 40 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand . . | \$58.00 |
| Medieval and Modern History, Set No. 25. 42 pages, 52 x 40 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand | 58.00 |
| Early European History, Set No. 26. 42 pages, 52 x 40 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand | 58.00 |
| Modern European History, Set No. 27. 42 pages, 52 x 40 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand | 58.00 |

OTHER MAPS

| | |
|--|-------|
| United States History, Set No. 3. 42 maps, 44 x 32 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand | 38.00 |
| Ancient History, Set No. 4. 38 pages, 44 x 32 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand . . . | 38.00 |
| Medieval and Modern History, Set No. 5. 42 pages, 44 x 32 inches. Price, with adjustable steel stand | 38.00 |

FREE EXAMINATION

McConnell Map Service is complete for every school purpose. All our maps are sold with satisfaction guaranteed or money refunded without question. Send now for what you need. If not entirely satisfied, return it within 30 days at our expense.

FREE BOOKLET

Send for free 16-page descriptive booklet, listing each map in the above sets. Address Dept., D.

McCONNELL SCHOOL MAP CO.

213 INSTITUTE PLACE

CHICAGO

HISTORY TEXTS for HIGH SCHOOLS

HAYES AND MOON

Modern History

Here is a book that represents the first successful attempt to provide a one-volume course in modern history with proportions in accord with present thought. The material is organized in such a way that it may be used for the standard course in Modern European History, or adapted easily for a course in World History.

The authors, close to abundant and reliable sources, and familiar with the best historical thought, are, as eminent historical scholars, well fitted to tell the story of the last four hundred years from the point of view of the new world that now confronts us.

COMAN AND KENDALL

Short History of England

The aim of this book is to tell in simple direct form the story of England. The successive stages in English history are traced from early Britain to the development and expansion of the British Empire. The simpler aspects of constitutional development are explained, and the life of the people in its homely detail has not been neglected.

BEARD AND BEARD

History of the United States

In this volume is found a thorough, topical treatment of the political movements and the social and economic factors of each period in American evolution, the narrative being brought in by way of illustration. America is considered as a part of a world civilization, and her international relations and the influences of nations upon one another are fully treated.

Supplementary Volume to be Published During the Summer

ASHLEY

The Constitution To-day

Here the author develops the principles embodied in the Constitution as a study of the relation of its parts to the whole. The chapters follow the fundamental subdivisions of the document itself. Provisions are listed and their explanations are made. A short history of the antecedents is given. Questions are distinctly a challenge to the student. Throughout the entire treatment, the Constitution is considered a vital organization rather than an historical document.

New York
Dallas

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

Chicago
Boston

Atlanta

San Francisco

The Historical Outlook

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume XV.
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1924

\$2.00 a year.
25 cents a copy.

The History Inquiry

Report of the Director, Professor Edgar Dawson, Hunter College

INTRODUCTION

The History Curricula Inquiry was undertaken because the officers of the American Historical Association needed some definite objective information as a basis for determining the present duty of the association to the teaching of history in the schools. It was made possible through a grant of funds and technical assistance by the Institute of Educational Research of Teachers College, Columbia University. It has been conducted under the guidance and control of the following committee:

William E. Lingelbach (chairman); J. Montgomery Gambrill, D. C. Knowlton, Henry Johnson, Albert E. McKinley, R. M. Tryon, Geo. F. Zook, Otis W. Caldwell, and Edgar Dawson.

This committee was nominated by the Committee on History in the Schools of the American Historical Association and appointed on the authority of the association.

The character of the work has been determined by several considerations. Its purpose was entirely practical. This was not to make recommendations or to outline a policy, but to discover the present condition and tendencies of history teaching in the schools. The most recent tendencies, as expressed in experimentation, are not included in this report for the reason that they have already been fully discussed in Professor J. M. Gambrill's report on Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies, published in the December-February, 1923-1924, numbers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

The time to be devoted to the Inquiry was set at six months, from October 1, 1923, to April 1, 1924. The person placed in charge of the work undertook it only after it seemed impracticable to find anyone

else; and, since he was already committed to the regular work of a professor, his time could not be devoted entirely to this undertaking. The task has, however, been greatly lightened by the active co-operation of the committee; of the staff of Lincoln School of Teachers College, where the office of the Inquiry has been located; and of teachers and school administrators all over the country. The National Bureau of Education has responded promptly and generously to all requests for assistance, and these have been numerous.

The methods used in collecting information were determined by the time limits. Questionnaires were sent to superintendents, principals of high schools, and heads of departments of history in high schools. The information thus collected was summarized, and printed statements of the summaries were widely distributed for comment, resulting in an extended correspondence with teachers and administrators. The statements were also submitted to discussion at the annual meetings of the American Historical Association, the National Council for the Social Studies, and a number of local associations of teachers.

School programs and reports of school authorities of the last quarter-century were examined in so far as they were available in New York City or could be promptly secured by mail. Educational journals, reports of committees, and textbooks were reread with some attention to the particular purpose of The History Inquiry. The assistance of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and of the College Entrance Examination Board was obtained to discover what college entrance figures would show. A number of publishers supplied figures on the sale of their textbooks.

I

Stabilizing History Teaching

Just twenty-five years ago, in June, 1899, was printed the report of the Committee of Seven on The Study of History in Schools. This committee had been appointed in 1896 "to consider the subject of history in the schools and to draw up a scheme of college entrance requirements in history."¹ This mandate was accepted in about the same spirit as the convention of 1787 accepted its instructions to amend the Articles of Confederation. "It is not the function of

this committee to make up a college entrance system, but rather to suggest a plan of study for the schools."² In performing this function the committee prepared a report which is unique in its completeness and mastery of the situation among reports in this field. To mention the names of its members is a sufficient guarantee of the character of its work: A. C. McLaughlin (chairman), Herbert B. Adams, George L. Fox, A. B. Hart, C. H. Haskins, Lucy M.

Salmon, H. Morse Stephens. Three of these had been secondary school teachers; others had been actively interested for years in the problems of secondary education; three studied the teaching of history in European school systems in 1897.

Since this committee set up the program which constitutes the point of departure for the tendencies now under discussion, it seems important to recall to the reader's memory the character of its work. The following quotations seem to be a fair statement of the committee's purpose:

Before we began our work, it was plain that there was an awakening interest in this whole subject, and the time seemed to be at hand when a systematic effort would meet with response and produce results. But in spite of all that had been done, and in spite of this awakened interest, there was no recognized consensus of opinion in the country at large, not one generally accepted judgment, not even one well-known point of agreement, which would serve as a beginning for a consideration of the place of history in the high school curriculum. Such a statement cannot be made concerning any other subject commonly taught in the secondary schools. The task of the committee was, therefore, to discover the actual situation, to see what was doing and what was the prevailing sentiment, to localize and establish a modicum of practices and principles, however small and limited it might be; and, having apprehended what was best and most helpful in spirit and tendency among teachers of the country, to seek to give that spirit expression in a report that would be helpful and suggestive, and that would be of service in widening the field of agreement and in laying the foundations for a common understanding.

We have sought chiefly to discuss, in an argumentative way, the general subject submitted for consideration, to offer suggestions as to methods of historical teaching and as to the place of history on the school program, being fully aware that, when all is said and done, only so much will be adopted as appeals to the sense and judgment of the secondary teachers and superintendents; and that any rigid list of requirements, or any body of peremptory demands, however judiciously framed, not only would, but should, be disregarded in schools whose local conditions made it unwise to accept them.²

If it is desirable that the high school pupil should know the physical world, that he should know the habits of ants and bees, the laws of floral growth, the simple reactions in the chemical retort, it is certainly even more desirable that he should be led to see the steps in the development of the human race, and should have some dim perception of his own place, and of his country's place in the great movements of men. One does not need to say in these latter days that secondary education ought to fit boys and girls to become, not scholastics, but men and women who know their surroundings and have come to a sympathetic knowledge of their environment; and it does not seem necessary now to argue that the most essential result of secondary education is acquaintance with political and social environment, some appreciation of the nature of the state and society, some sense of the *duties and responsibilities* of citizenship, some capacity in dealing with political and governmental questions, something of the broad and tolerant spirit which is bred by the study of past times and conditions.

It is a law well recognized by psychologists, a law of which the teacher in school or college sees daily application and illustration, that one obtains knowledge by adding to the ideas which one already has new ideas organically related to the old. Recent psychological pedagogy looks upon the child as a reacting organism, and declares that he should be trained in those reactions which he will most need as an adult. The chief object of every experienced teacher is to get pupils to think properly after the method adopted in his particular line of work; not an accumulation

of information, but the habit of correct thinking, is the supreme result of good teaching in every branch of instruction. All this simply means that the student who is taught to consider political subjects in school, who is led to look at matters historically, has some mental equipment for a comprehension of the political and social problems that will confront him in everyday life, and has received practical preparation for social adaptation and for forceful participation in civic activities.

We do not think that this preparation is satisfactorily acquired merely through the study of civil government, which, strictly construed, has to do only with existing institutions. The pupil should see the growth of the institutions which surround him; he should see the work of men; he should study the living concrete facts of the past; he should know of nations that have risen and fallen; he should see tyranny, vulgarity, greed, benevolence, patriotism, self-sacrifice brought out in the lives and works of men. So strongly has this very thought taken hold of writers of civil government, that they no longer content themselves with a description of the government as it is, but describe at considerable length the origin and development of the institutions of which they speak. While we have no desire to underestimate the value of civil government as a secondary study, especially if it is written and taught from the historical point of view, we desire to emphasize the thought that appreciation and sympathy for the present is best secured by a study of the past, and while we believe that it is the imperative duty of every high school and academy to teach boys and girls the elementary knowledge of the political machinery which they will be called upon to manage as citizens of a free state, we insist also that they should have the broader knowledge, the more intelligent spirit, that comes from a study of other men and of other times. They should be led to see that society is in movement, that what one sees about him is not the eternal but the transient, and that in the process of change virtue must be militant if it is to be triumphant.³

It is not practicable to summarize the report of the Committee of Seven. To say that it recommended that four blocks of history be offered in the schools is to stress but one of its recommendations. It did propose that ancient history, medieval and modern history, English history, and American history and civics be offered where it is possible for a school to offer so much; and that the courses be offered in this order. But it also went into an extended discussion of the basis of education for citizenship and the general cultural values to be derived from the study of history.

The reader will do well to keep clearly in mind that history, like most other general notions, is subject to two types of definition—a special or limited one, and a general or comprehensive one. The history of the professor in the graduate school of the university is a different thing from the history of the maker of school curricula. It is the latter conception that the Committee of Seven had in mind when it discussed the teaching of history in the schools. In some quarters one now hears the expression "synthetic history" and its use may be helpful. The Committee of Seven was aware that separate courses in economics and civil government were offered in its day, and it was not indifferent to the purposes of these courses; but it believed that a generous teaching of history by teachers who have been thoroughly trained will accomplish the purposes as well as they can be accomplished in the time generally accorded to history and its allies in the schools.

The outstanding error which it sought to correct was the type of one-year general history then being offered. This course consisted of a catalogue of names of persons, battles, dates, and other encyclopedic information; it was wholly unsound from any pedagogical point of view; and it, therefore, accomplished none of the purposes for which history should be taught. The committee recommended that some one or two or more of the blocks be offered in place of this—as it held it to be—useless course. Ancient history was included in the list because of the requirements set up by college admission authorities. These requirements were held by at least one member of the committee to be one of the main obstacles to its work. "It was a stone around our necks."

Two other practical things the committee sought to do. It sought to secure for American history a place near the end of the curriculum, preferably in grade 12, where it will be studied by mature pupils; and it recommended that civil government be taught with the American history. Some have held that the committee minimized the importance of civil government, but this does not seem to have been the fact. The purpose was to get the subject taught at the end of the school course, and the committee felt that only in this arrangement could this purpose be accomplished.

The reader is cautioned against the assumption that he can do more than refresh his mind on the Committee of Seven by what he reads here. If he has not read the report itself carefully he is in no position to estimate the reasons why the committee exercised such wide-spread influence over the teaching of history. There is little doubt that the influence would have been much greater but for one fact. As time went by, people forgot the report and judged its recommendations by the teaching of the four blocks of history. In spite of the fact that the committee laid the greatest emphasis on the training of the teacher, history continued to be assigned to persons without training who, therefore, necessarily brought discredit upon the subject.

Nevertheless, when the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association, appointed to re-study the teaching of history, published its report in 1911, we find it making the following comment on the success of its predecessor:

The report appears to have judged the general situation correctly, and, in the main, to have recommended steps that the schools were prepared to take. From one side of the continent to the other courses were fashioned with deference to its recommendations. The report of the committee affected not merely the curriculum but also the method and even the aims of history teaching, and its natural result was also to bring about, or help to bring about, the establishment of substantially similar curricula in a large portion of the schools the country over. In general this movement appears to us to have been wise and admirable. The approximate uniformity in the history curricula of the schools is in itself so desirable that the condition ought not to be disturbed except for strong reasons or where there is good ground for expectation that a large percentage of the schools can easily and willingly accommodate themselves to the change. Not that absolute conformity to a fixed regime is in all cases wise; local con-

ditions or peculiar circumstances may justly have more influence on the shaping of a curriculum than any theory of adjustment or of correlation of studies. But there is such a thing as a logically developed series of history courses, and there are general principles that are largely applicable to the great majority of schools, such principles may in especial cases need modification, but they need not be entirely ignored. It is probably unnecessary to prove to the practical teacher the convenience of substantially similar courses in the high schools, especially if college entrance requirements are, or can be brought to be, in accord with what the schools are prepared to furnish.

In light of all these facts we have felt it peculiarly advisable to look into present conditions carefully and to recommend only such change as appeared indubitably advantageous and clearly in the line of progress. Fortunately no very radical alteration in the curriculum appears necessary.⁵

Because the Committee of Five believed that the influence which had been exerted by the Committee of Seven was so wholesome, it recommended little change from the course then being pursued. It did argue for more emphasis on the teaching of civil government and on modern European history. To secure the latter it recommended changing the names of the four blocks to read: ancient history, English history, modern European history, and American history and government. To secure more definite emphasis on government, it asked that the five-hour course in grade 12 be divided, three hours being given to history and two to government.⁶

It is not altogether unreasonable to expect the report of the Committee of Five to express some appreciation of the work of the previous committee. A majority of the members of the second committee were also members of the first. The continued growth of the influence of the earlier report is recorded somewhat later, however, by a wholly impartial observer. Professor Thomas H. Briggs, in his contribution to the annual report of the Commissioner of Education for 1915, p. 120, says "The evident, though not overwhelming, distribution of the so-called 'four blocks of history' manifests the influence of the report of the Committee of Seven." There is no doubt that the committee did exercise a very considerable stabilizing influence on the teaching of history in the secondary schools—history of a broad type, including the elements of economic and political thought as well as of historical evolution. That it exercised no greater influence, and that this influence later waned is doubtless due in large part to the fact that little or no attention was paid to the training or assignment of teachers of history. Its success was doubtless due in large measure to the fact that it made no revolutionary proposals; but confined its efforts to selecting the most wholesome tendencies of the time and strengthening these tendencies with argument and encouragement.

Since but little space will be given in this report to history in the elementary grades for the reason that adequate information could not be collected as to conditions in these grades, it may be desirable only to mention the Committee of Eight which published its report on *The Study of History in the Elementary Schools* in 1909. This committee of the American

Historical Association recommended that American history be made the backbone of the course in the grades, with the European background of American history in grade 6, some teaching of "heroes of other times and other countries" in grade 3, and some civics

in grades 5-8. In so far as the Inquiry has been able to ascertain the facts, this report is the guiding influence of history in the grades in so far as it is guided by any nation-wide influence.

II

The Arrival of Unrest.

It was natural for the committees of the American Historical Association to lay rather slight, if any, stress on the teaching of the allied subjects. Even the Madison conference had argued that history instruction could carry such political and economic elements as the pupils in secondary schools needed. There were in the schools almost no teachers of these allied subjects separately from history. When courses were offered they were under the direction of the history departments and generally taught by history teachers. Nevertheless, it is perfectly clear that during the first fifteen years of the period under consideration a demand was developing that high school pupils be more fully introduced to political and economic thought than was common in the history courses then given. Had those who cared for history teaching taken the trouble to see that the broad definition of history to include the elements of modern scientific thought on current problems be applied in teaching it is possible that this demand would have been less insistent. As it is, the student of our educational evolution must recognize in this period a rising tide of very definite discontent with historical instruction because of its military and political character and its disposition to deal with isolated facts, meaningless dates, and biographical episodes.

Separate courses in civil government had been offered somewhat extensively for a long time. In the Jacksonian period a considerable number of textbooks appeared and were repeatedly republished. Toward the end of the century, many texts, led by John Fiske's *Civil Government*, provided instruction that went much beyond the mere memorizing of the Federal Constitution. The apologists for separate instruction in government did not, however, place their subject before the school administrators with the same effectiveness as did the historians.

One of the most serious and well supported efforts to vitalize the teaching of government was initiated by the National Municipal League when it created a committee with Dr. Wm. H. Maxwell as chairman, and secured a careful study of the teaching of city government extending over a number of years and resulting in several excellent reports. When Dr. Maxwell reported in 1905, however, he was not hopeful for the outlook. He called attention to the fact that one could not then offer to the teacher of city government a convincing body of information and principles. Several committees of the American Political Science Association have studied the problem, but their reports do not seem to have been greatly influential in the direction of definite programs or

methods. It may be that one of the reasons for this is the fact that enough civics or government has rarely been offered to justify the employment of separate teachers and that, therefore, this branch of teaching has always had to survive as a "poor relation of history." The teachers, if trained at all in this field, had specialized in history and taught civics only because it was their duty to do it, not because they were much interested in it.

Separate courses in economics developed under a greater handicap than did those in civil government. While the American Political Science Association had, from its beginning, made efforts now and then to stimulate the teaching of the elements of government in the schools, university professors of economics generally believed that school children were too immature for serious consideration of economic theory and had better let it alone. They seemed generally to agree with the historians that such facts of industrial and economic evolution as were suitable for secondary school instruction could best be incorporated in history courses. In spite of this discouragement, however, the number of schools offering separate courses in economics continued to increase and there were always a few teachers and professors, not to mention textbook writers and publishers, who insisted that economics must be separately offered if it was to aid in shaping the philosophy of the rising generations. As in the case of civil government, however, no serious attention was given to the training of teachers of economics. It is almost never mentioned in the programs of teacher training institutions of the period; and the classes were generally assigned to history teachers to handle as best they could.

Sociology entered the competition for recognition much later than either of the subjects already mentioned. As late as 1913⁷ separate instruction was but rarely offered; and six years later the sociologists feared that their subject would be discredited by the work of overzealous, but untrained teachers. So far as the record shows, the sociologists as a group, like the economists, have generally not insisted on separate courses in their subject. They have reacted strongly against the kind of teaching that must be expected from a haphazard reference of history courses to teachers of mathematics or commercial courses, and have insisted that prospective history teachers be in some way introduced to a vision of society in action and inspired by purposeful philosophy. Nevertheless, textbooks in elementary sociology began to appear, their authors and publishers spoke well of the possibilities of sociology as a school sub-

ject, and school administrators, blindly seeking for some panacea for social unrest, found places for elective courses which attracted quite a numerous following.

These three subjects—government, economics, and sociology—came to be called the social sciences and their apologists tended to draw together in opposition to the monopoly of history. Some of these apologists began to speak disparagingly, and with some truth, of the type of history which was being administered. They demanded recognition in college

admission requirements and contributed not a little to the discontent with history which was growing in the councils of secondary school administrators. The situation in 1915 may be summed up in a picture of the four blocks of history recommended by the Committees of the American Historical Association with a small amount of civil government affiliated, more or less closely with the American history of grade 12, and scattered elective courses in economics and sociology in grade 11 or 12.

III

The Reorganization of Secondary Education.

A consideration of the present tendencies in history teaching which fails to take into account the movement to reorganize secondary education fails to reckon with a most important element in the situation. The beginning of a demand for reorganization may be found as early as 1888 when President Eliot pleaded before the National Education Association for a shorter period of pre-professional education. Almost as early, discontent with what was called college domination of secondary schools began to appear. Right or wrong, those who were immediately responsible for the administration of school systems felt that it was their duty to act more independently and to reorganize secondary education in the interest, as they said, of the great majority of their pupils rather than of the minority—of those who did not expect to go to college rather than of those who did expect to do so. This situation may be illustrated through reference to the status of the course in ancient history. One of the problems of the Committee of Seven was to satisfy college admission authorities, who demanded a one-year course in ancient history, and at the same time to take care of other desiderata. The school administrators had little interest in this course; the college authorities insisted on it. The school authorities were coming to look favorably on some more effective introduction to social, economic, and political problems; the college admission authorities turned a deaf ear to the demand that courses to this end receive college entrance credit. These facts are presented with no effort to argue the wisdom involved. The fact is that the school administrators were discontented and demanded a pretty thoroughgoing reorganization of the curricula of the schools.

In 1911 a Committee of the National Education Association on the Articulation of High School and College issued a report which was widely circulated. It recommended a broad liberalization of college entrance requirements and submitted a definition of a new high school course. Out of this set of recommendations grew a number of committees which were set up with a view to a systematic re-study of the several subjects included in secondary school curricula. In order that these committees might co-operate effectively they were united under a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, and a re-

viewing committee was set up to secure the co-ordination of such recommendations as were made by the several subject committees. It was hoped that the commission would effect the following things:

- a. Formulate statements of the valid aims, efficient methods and kinds of material whereby each subject may best serve the needs of high school pupils.
- b. Enable the inexperienced teacher to secure at the outset a correct point of view.
- c. Place the needs of the high school before all agencies that are training teachers for positions in the high schools.
- d. Secure college entrance recognition for courses that meet actual needs of high school pupils.⁹

Of this commission, Professor Briggs said in 1915: "The greatest single unifying force is undoubtedly the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education."¹⁰

The plans of the commission and its sub-committees included recognition of the junior high school (grades 7-9) and the 6-3-3 arrangement of the school system. The junior high school was steadily growing in popularity, but its acceptance was seriously retarded by inertia and by the expense of adding large numbers of new buildings. The first one seems to have been organized in 1909 and even now (1924) the Bureau of Education reports only 733 fully organized junior high schools in the country; but most of the innovators, wise and unwise, have been building on the supposition that the obstacles to the system will gradually be worn away and that the 6-3-3 plan is certain of general acceptance.

The proposed rearrangement has direct bearing on the recommendations of the Committee of Seven. If grade 9 becomes the last year of a three-year junior high school course, almost any one would propose a different type of instruction there from what would be proposed for the first year of a four-year standard high school. Ancient history, a bone of contention between college admission authorities and the innovators, would hardly be recommended for the last year of pupils who do not propose to remain in school after that year; and one of the arguments for the junior high school rested on the fact that large numbers of pupils leave school at the end of grade 9. The Committee of Seven blocks must, it seemed, be

COMPARATIVE DIAGRAM OF

| Grades | Madison Conference (1892) | Committee of Seven (1898) Report for Four-Year High School | Committee of Eight (1908) |
|---------------------------------|--|---|---|
| I. | | | Pictures and Stories of Indian Life; and Teaching Centered On Public Holidays and Local History |
| II. | | | |
| III. | | *Biography of Great Men | Pictures of Historical Scenes and Persons of Various Ages |
| IV. | | | Historical Scenes and Persons in Early American History |
| V. | Mythology and Biography | *Ancient History | Historical Scenes and Persons in Later American History A Little Civics* |
| VI. | | *Mediaeval and Modern History | World from Which Our Ancestors Came More Civics* |
| VII. | American History and Civil Government | *English History | Early American History Still More Civics* |
| VIII. | Greek and Roman History With Oriental Connections | *American History | Later American History and Civics* |
| Committee of Five (1910) | | | |
| IX. | French History With Background of Mediaeval and Modern History | Ancient History to 800 | Ancient History to 800† |
| X. | English History With Background of Mediaeval and Modern History | Mediaeval and Modern History | English History With Continental Connections to 1760† |
| XI. | American History | English History | Modern Europe With English Connections Since 1760† |
| XII. | A Special Period and Civil Government | American History and Civil Government (together) | American History and Government,† Separately or Ratio of 3:2 |
| Notes | Suggested a six-year course, omitting Ancient and French History, setting the Elementary Courses one year later. | *Elementary Courses suggested by Professor L. M. Salmon independently of the Committee. | *This Civics is practically "Community Civics." †Economic, political and social. |

COMMITTEE REPORTS, 1899-1922

The Junior High School Movement, Community Civics and Vocational Courses

| N. E. A. Committee (1916) | | Second Committee of Eight (1921) | | Pennsylvania Program 1922 | |
|--|--|---------------------------------------|--|--|---|
| | | Making of the Community | Indian and Pioneer Life; Pictures and Stories of Different Habits of Life | History Public Anniversaries Primitive, Pioneer and Pastoral Life | Civics |
| | | | How Europeans Found Our Continent and What They Did With It | | |
| | | | How Englishmen Became Americans 1607-1783 | Stories of American History | Civic Virtues in Grades I.-VI. Community Co-operation in Grades III.-VI |
| | | | The United States 1783-1877 | | |
| | | | *United States Since 1877 How We Are Governed | | |
| *Junior High School Cycle | Geography, European History, Community Civics | American History in Its World Setting | The World Before 1607 Including Spain in America | United States History | |
| | American History, Community Civics, Geography Incidentally | | The World Since 1607 with Emphasis on Economic and Social History of the United States | Community Civics | |
| | Political, Economic and Vocational Civics, with History Incidentally | | Community and National Activities Including Com- mercial Geography, Eco- nomic History and Civics | A Half Year Each of Vocational and Economic Civics* | |
| *Senior High School Cycle | European History, With Oriental and English | The Modern World | Progress Toward World Democracy since 1650 | World Survey of History | |
| | American History | | Progress Toward Democ- racy in the United States With Foreign Contacts | American History | |
| | Problems of American Democracy | | Social, Economic and Political Problems and Principles | Problems of American Democracy | |
| *Various alternative arrangements sug- gested for both Cycles and a Curriculum for Six Schools with European History in Grades IX. and X. | | *Half-year of each | | *Either half-year may be omitted to provide three half-years of world survey. | |

*Various alternative arrangements suggested for both Cycles and a Curriculum for 324 Schools with European History in Grades IX. and X.

*Half-year of each

*Either half-year may be omitted to provide three half-years of world survey.

reduced from four to three; and a new proposal must be found for grade 9.

Furthermore, since grades 7-9 were to constitute a new group of high school grades, a wholly new situation arose beckoning to the inventors of new courses of study. Hence these three grades were destined to become the experimental ground for those who had panaceas to offer. They saw that it would not be

difficult to secure recognition in this new unit for new ideas, while in the other grades, above and below, the older conditions would remain firmly entrenched. They felt, however, that if the innovations could secure a hearing in grades 7-9 they would soon win such approval as to extend their influence through the remainder of the school system.

IV

The Committee on Social Studies.

Of the ten committees subsidiary to the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, one of the most active and influential was the Committee on Social Studies. Its function was to consider the reorganization of the teaching of history and its allies in grades 7-12 and to formulate proposals for the guidance of teachers and administrators in their efforts to liberalize secondary education. Unlike the Committee of Seven it does not seem to have considered college admission requirements at all, but concentrated its attention on the needs of those high school pupils who would complete their formal education in the secondary schools. The committee was made up largely of high school teachers of history and its allies, but it also included school administrators and college professors of history and other subjects. As soon as it was appointed it entered energetically upon its task and after three years issued a tentative report.¹¹

This report was widely circulated, 27,000 copies of it having been distributed by the Bureau of Education, and it has exerted an influence in the field under our consideration closely comparable with that of the report of the Committee of Seven. As will appear later in this report, the influence of these two committees may be said to account for something like two-thirds of the courses now offered in the secondary schools. The remaining third may be accounted for by chance or bewilderment. Therefore, it is of the utmost importance that the reader form a fairly clear notion of the program of the Committee on Social Studies before he turns to an examination of a cross-section survey of present conditions. The very title of the committee marks a departure, offering a new name for the field of study which we have before us. The term "Social Studies" implies recognition of the subjects other than history which had been asking for recognition. It may be useful to quote the committee's own definition of this term:

Definition of the social studies. The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.

Aims of the social studies. The social studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim; for the keynote of modern education is "social efficiency," and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end. Yet, from the nature of their content, the social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society. Whatever their value from the point of view of personal culture, unless they contribute directly to the cultivation of social efficiency

on the part of the pupil, they fail in their most important function. They should accomplish this end through the development of an appreciation of the nature and laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups, and the intelligence and the will to participate effectively in the promotion of social well-being.

More specifically, the social studies of the American high school should have for their conscious and constant purpose the cultivation of good citizenship. We may identify the "good citizen" of a neighborhood with the "thoroughly efficient member" of that neighborhood, but he will be characterized, among other things, by a loyalty and a sense of obligation to his city, state and nation as political units. Again, "society" may be interpreted to include the human race. Humanity is bigger than any of its divisions. The social studies should cultivate a sense of membership in the "world community," with all the sympathies and sense of justice that this involves as among the different divisions of human society. The first step, however, toward a true "neighborliness" among nations must be a realization of national ideals, national efficiency, national loyalty, national self-respect, just as real neighborliness among different family groups depends upon the solidarity, the self-respect, and the loyalty to be found within each of the component families.

High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should thus be a specific aim of the social studies in American high schools.¹²

The Committee on Social Studies issued its report just before America entered the World War. Its organization was at once broken up and it never returned to the task which had been so hopefully begun. Its report is, therefore, even harder to summarize or describe briefly than is that of the Committee of Seven. Issued for purposes of discussion, it contains a mass of alternative proposals intended rather to stimulate suggestion and self-analysis than to direct action. Furthermore, it differs from the report of the Committee of Seven in that it is intended rather to stimulate new courses than to stabilize the best among the current practices. In these circumstances, it is doubtless most reasonable to look for its character in its outcome than to run the risk of unfair selection among its alternative proposals. Dr. J. L. Barnard was one of the most active and productive members of the committee. He afterwards became inspector of social studies for the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction and has been largely instrumental in issuing a state course in social studies which is accepted as a logical outgrowth of the work of the committee under consideration. An outline of the Pennsylvania course will be found in the diagram on page 245.

Three items may be used to illustrate the character of the movement which was set in motion by the Committee on Social Studies and which has terminated in the courses now being offered in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and elsewhere. These are the new civics courses offered for grade 9 and below in the junior high school grades, the new world history course, and the course in problems of democracy, generally offered in grade 12.

The new civics proposed by the Committee on Social Studies is probably the most indefinite part of its program. This is not surprising to one who remembers that the report was written nearly ten years ago and that the work for grades 7-9 is still sadly chaotic—a condition which is to be expected in a period of transition. The Committee of Eight had placed American history in grades 7-8, and the Committee of Seven offered ancient history for grade 9. The former had recommended some civics to run with the American history in both grades. For more than a decade, community civics had been growing in favor as a course for these grades; and members of the Committee on Social Studies had issued a bulletin,¹³ in 1915, setting forth the merits of this course. The bulletin had been cordially received by many school administrators and was widely read, the Bureau of Education reporting a call for over 37,000 copies. As ancient history gave way before the movement to liberalize college admission requirements, community civics took its place in grade 9; and in many schools pupils are given the option in this grade of taking either of these courses. The following quotations from the bulletin, which the Committee on Social Studies made a part of its report, may serve to indicate the committee's view of this course:

The aim of community civics is to help the child to know his community, not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfil his obligation, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual co-operation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our nation and our state are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as of the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests....It is a question of point of view, and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community.

To accomplish its part in the training for citizenship, community civics should aim primarily to lead the pupil:

1. To see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member.
2. To know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare.
3. To recognize his civic obligation, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

These three aims are given in the above order because it is essential to the success of this course that at the outset the interest of the pupil be attached to the elements of common welfare, and that he be taught to think of each agency as a means to an end and not as an end in itself. Each part of the study should culminate in a recognition of personal responsibility as a good citizen, and, as far as possible, in appropriate action.

Many courses in civics fail because they fix attention upon the machinery of government rather than upon the elements of community welfare for which government exists, that is, they familiarize the pupil with the manipulation of the social machinery without showing him the importance of the social ends for which this machinery should be used. Consequently, the pupil, upon leaving school, uses his knowledge for ends which are most evident to him, namely, his own selfish interests.¹⁴

The committee seems to have thought in terms of civics of some kind running throughout grades 7-9 and to have expected the emphasis on economic and vocational problems to increase with the progress of the pupils from grade to grade. It was probably impossible for the report to present, at that date, a finished proposal for the organization of this work. The junior high school was still embryonic and the committee was starting a discussion of the problems of this new curriculum unit which it expected to extend over a number of years. Since the report appeared much experimenting has been done. Since the committee has not issued another statement, it may be proper to offer here a statement covering what seems to have grown out of the beginnings described in the report. It will be remembered that Dr. Barnard was a leading member of the committee. With him now in the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction is Mr. James M. Glass, who has recently made a study of the leading junior high school systems. He has been generous enough to permit the following quotations from his report which has not yet appeared:¹⁵

General courses of study pass through two consecutive stages. First, there is a composite stage of previously isolated units of instruction which in the composite stage remain isolated in materials and time distribution, but are taught by one teacher to the same classes, e. g., general mathematics is largely divided into arithmetic, algebra and intuitive geometry, all three making a composite general mathematics course taught by one teacher to the same class, but each taught as an isolated unit in materials and time allotments. Secondly, there is a unified or fusion stage when the isolated units of the composite stage are gradually fused into one unified body of materials. There are also various stages of transition between the two extremes of composite and unified courses. Social studies divided into courses of community civics, vocational civics, economic civics, political civics, current world history, etc., represent the composite stage of isolated units of instruction. General social science as given in some of the chapters of the Twenty-second yearbook, Part II, represents the second stage when formerly isolated but related courses of study are fused into one unified general social science course. However desirable the unified course may be its practicability has yet to be determined.

In social studies both stages exist in the present administration of the curriculum. The composite stage is inevitable because each isolated unit of instruction, e. g., community civics, vocational civics, economic civics, current world history, etc., must first develop its own body of materials before selection of its most valuable content can be made for a unified social science course. In other words, the composite stage is desirable because it offers an opportunity

to evaluate the materials of the isolated units of instruction before the more difficult task is undertaken of determining relative values in the selection of materials for a general social science course....

The fact that economic civics appears as such a minor division of the social studies course is due to several conditions; first, it has been forced to await the development of the community civics and vocational civics courses; secondly, there has been very limited experimentation with the teaching of elementary economics in the junior high school, which, like other new units of instruction in the junior high school program of studies, could be readjusted to the junior high school; thirdly, several units of teaching which properly belong to economics have been incorporated into the community civics course, in other words there is a consensus of opinion that economic civics as a distinct division of social studies is unnecessary, but that it should be incorporated as part of the community civics course. Undoubtedly this last point of view is wholly justified and all present divisions of social studies should be assimilated into a general social science course of study....

Vocational civics is finding a place in the core curriculum of the junior high school. The inherent values of vocational civics to the end of fulfilling fundamental junior high school objectives will win for this division of social studies an increasing proportion of time allotment. Vocational civics is likely also to secure a share in the guidance program of the junior high school. The chief deterrent to the more rapid development of vocational civics is the present lack of courses of study and suitable text-books.

History in the program of the Committee on Social Studies as illustrated in the Pennsylvania State program for the senior high school is in sharp contrast to that of the Committee of Seven. The latter particularly condemned the one-year general history course, while the former definitely recommends it. Dr. Barnard speaks of this course as follows:

The European history of the tenth grade (possibly including the last half of the ninth) is intended as a world survey with steadily increasing emphasis as recent times are approached. "Truncated history," whether the part reserved for study is the so-called "ancient" or the so-called "modern" history, is not a part of the Pennsylvania program of citizen-training. To be effective, the story of human progress, of how man has learned to co-operate with his fellow-man, must begin where the story itself begins, and end where it ends. With the problem method and committee reports this becomes feasible; with the formal recitation and the inclusion of petty detail, it is next to impossible."

This is a pretty positive indictment of any other form of organization in history. It may be worth while, however, to compare the competing programs. The Committee of Seven recommended medieval and modern history for grade 10. The Pennsylvania program places general history, possibly, in grade 10 and the latter half of grade 9. If ancient history is covered in grade 9, latter half, then the two arrangements do not seem to be as far apart as the poles. That ancient history can be covered after a fashion in half a year, if the military and biographical details are cut down somewhat, is indicated by the fact that the present two-year courses in European history are disposed to offer the period from earliest times to 1789 for grade 10. It is true that these courses give a whole year to the period since 1789, but that is another story. This is but an illustration of the fact that much of our debate is about matters which might possibly be adjusted with a little reason. Here again attention must be called to the fact that much of the

discussion of history teaching has in mind not what a trained history teacher will do, but what is often done by teachers who are not trained in this subject, whatever may be their equipment in others. It must also be kept in mind that the one-year course now proposed is a very different thing from the one which confronted the Committee of Seven in 1896. The new course might more properly be called modern history with its earliest beginnings; in fact, it is often so called.

There is an aspect of the proposals made by the Committee on Social Studies in its discussion of history teaching which is somewhat less easily adjusted to the view of historical scholars; and this aspect has tended to bring the report of that committee into disfavor with some history teachers. The committee is charged with demanding of history a somewhat too practical purpose; it must always "function in the present," and this expression has been interpreted to mean that all the facts of history must be taught with reference to their immediate bearing on the present. The following statement may make the point of view of the committee somewhat clearer:

What is meant by functioning in the present? There are two interpretations of this phrase: (a) The sociological interpretation, according to which it is enough if history be made to explain present conditions and institutions; (b) the pedagogical interpretation according to which history, to be of value educationally, must be related to the present interests of the pupil. Many present-day problems are as far removed from the interests and experience of youth as if they belonged to the most remote historical epoch. It is not that a past event has its results, or its counterpart, or its analogy, or its contrast in the present that gives it its chief educational value, but that it "meets the needs of proper growth" in the pupil. We have learned to use hero stories and pioneer stories from any epoch of history in certain elementary grades because there is something in children that makes them want such stories as food for growth.

The selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given to it should depend, not merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative present importance from the adult or from a sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topic can be related to the present life interests of the pupil, or can be used by him in his present process of growth."

The reader may wish at this point to be reminded that the Committee of Seven laid some stress on the fact that history must always be related to the present interest of the child, "adding to the ideas which one already has new ideas organically related to the old."¹⁸

The problems of democracy course as proposed by the Committee on Social Studies is apparently a wholly new departure. The following description of it is doubtless full enough to indicate its general character to those who are not already acquainted with it:

A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics are accordingly appearing in high school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed. A practical difficulty is presented by the

resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's social education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms, but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic and sociological.

These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class, and (2) of their vital importance to society.

Illustrations.—In actual life, whether as high school pupils or as adults, we face problems or conditions and not sciences. We use sciences, however, to interpret our problems and conditions. Furthermore, every problem or condition has many sides and may involve the use of various sciences. To illustrate the point we may take the cost of living, which is a vital problem from the standpoint of the individual and of society, and may readily have been forced upon the interest of the pupil through changes in mode of life, curtailment of allowance, sacrifice of customary pleasures, change in plans for education, etc. This problem involves, on the economic side, such fundamental matters as values, prices, wages, etc.; on the sociological side, such matters as standards of living, birth rate, etc.; on the political side, such matters as tariff legislation, control of

trusts and the like, and the appropriate machinery of legislation, law enforcement and judicial procedure.

Summary of Reasons for the Proposed Course.—In making its suggestion for this study of concrete problems of democracy in the last year of the high school the committee has been particularly influenced by the following considerations:

(1) It is impracticable to include in the high school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences. And yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to the field of any one of them, however important that one may be.

(2) The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.

(3) The principles upon which such a course is based are the same as those which have been successfully applied in community civics and, to some extent in isolated cases, to the teaching of economics, sociology, and even history."

V

Summary of Development.

By way of summary statement and for the convenience of the reader who wishes to refresh his memory as to the general proposals of the several committees, a diagram of outlines is offered on pages 244-245. One need hardly be cautioned against supposing that such outlines give any adequate notion of the reports of these committees. The only purpose the diagram can serve is to give the reader a few pegs on which to bring together all of the proposals for purposes of comparison.

One committee is included in the list which has not been mentioned above. This is the Second Committee of Eight, more accurately entitled "The Special Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools." Under the latter name it was adopted in 1918 by the American Historical Association after it had organized under the auspices of the National Board for Historical Service. This National Board consisted of a group of professors of history who had sought to use their professional equipment in the service of the country during the World War. When the war suddenly terminated they found themselves with a small sum of money and the disposition to use it for some purpose growing out of their efforts to keep the public mind wisely directed on public questions. The committee fell heir to the fund and the purpose.

In the spirit which had actuated the Committee of Seven, this new committee sought to discover the most hopeful trains of thought in civic education and to strengthen them through a well organized statement. It brought into consultation or correspondence nearly everyone who had anything to contribute to the cause it was serving, and found that there was considerable agreement in support of the outline of courses that is presented in the diagram. It may safely be said that this outline fairly represents the line of compromise between the newer and the older points of view—possibly it leans a little in the direction of the newer proposals represented by the Committee on Social Studies. At any rate, it suffered the fate of those who take the middle ground; many of its friends passed it by either on one side or the other. The American Historical Association declined to authorize the publication of its report, which had already been printed for discussion in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March-June, 1921, and granted its request for dismissal.

Still further to summarize one aspect of the present and recent tendencies, a cartoon is added as Graph 1. Like other cartoons, this one overstates and understates the truth. Let the reader take notice and beware. The whole group of economics and sociology courses being introduced in grade 12 is ignored by it,

for example; and the tendency of general history to occupy a year and a half rather than one year does not appear. It does bring out, for the hasty reader, the tendency of non-American history to be crowded into narrow space by pressure from below by community civics and from above by problems of democracy.

Below are added three statements, each representing the point of view of one of the fields of social studies other than history. The purpose of these statements is to show the reaction in these other fields to the movement which has been outlined in the foregoing pages.

Professor L. C. Marshall is chairman of the Committee on Economics in the Schools of the American Economic Association and also of the commission which drafted the following summary:²⁰

A review of these pronouncements made up to the December, 1921, meetings of the leading organizations concerned with the presentation of social studies in our secondary schools of the academic type justifies the following comments:

(a) The grip of history is strong. In the main it seems to have been assumed that historical study should be the chief instrumentality for giving our younger students an understanding of the structure of the present-day society.

(b) This attitude has been challenged to some extent in recent years by the community civics movement, and by the American Political Science Association and the American Sociological Society; so effectively challenged, indeed, that the historians themselves show signs that they appreciate that the monopoly of history is to be broken and that the history which remains in the curriculum is to be more definitely pointed toward understanding the society of today.

(c) The report of the subcommittee of the National Education Association on Social Studies in Secondary Education, more than any other report, displays a desire to make the student acquainted with the various aspects of the society in which he lives. But even that report blocks out a plan which is entirely inadequate. Notwithstanding its emphasis upon "community," "economic" and "vocational" civics, sufficient attention is not given to the economic aspects of modern society. The document shows the influence of the historian, the political scientist, and the sociologist, but not sufficiently of the economist. In particular there is a haphazard and inadequate presentation of economic interests in the content of community civics. There is a good selection of scattered topics, but the student can scarcely secure a rounded, balanced view of our modern society. Quite aside from the poor balance in this program of social studies, it is inadequate in its senior high school presentation. The senior high school curriculum should bring to ripeness and maturity the earlier work, but this is not done.

Professor W. B. Munro was chairman of the Committee on Instruction in Government of the American Political Science Association at the time the following statement was prepared in 1922:²¹

The American Political Science Association believes that there is urgent need for an authoritative definition of the term *Civics*. Originally this term, as applied to high school instruction, was understood to include a study of American Government and closely related matters; but its scope has been so greatly broadened in recent years that it is now regarded in many quarters as including the whole range of

the social sciences, economics, sociology, ethics, and international relations, with the basic subject of American Government thrust far into the background....The Association believes that this disintegration has been carried too far and that the time has come not only to establish the "outside boundaries" of Civics, but to urge a more effective coordination of the topics included within these limits.

At the same time the American Political Science Association expresses its readiness to co-operate cordially with other groups which may be primarily interested in the high school study of economics, sociology, and history, or in the task of providing courses designed to cover in an introductory way the field of the social sciences....

This does not mean....that the scope of a school course in Civics should be strictly confined to the framework and functions of government. The aim of the course should not be to impart information, but rather to give the pupil an intelligent conception of the great society in which he is a member, his relation to it, what it requires of him, how it is organized, and what functions it performs. From his study of Civics the pupil ought, accordingly, to learn something about the chief social and economic organizations and relations. Yet it should not be forgotten that in the field of social studies all roads lead through government....The study of governmental organization and the functions of public authority ought therefore to be the center or core of any high school course whose chief aim is to cultivate sound ideals of citizenship, to emphasize the duties of the citizen, and to afford any grasp of public problems.

Professor Charles A. Ellwood, author of the following statement, is now President of the American Sociological Society, and has long been an active member of that society's Committee on Sociology in the Schools:²²

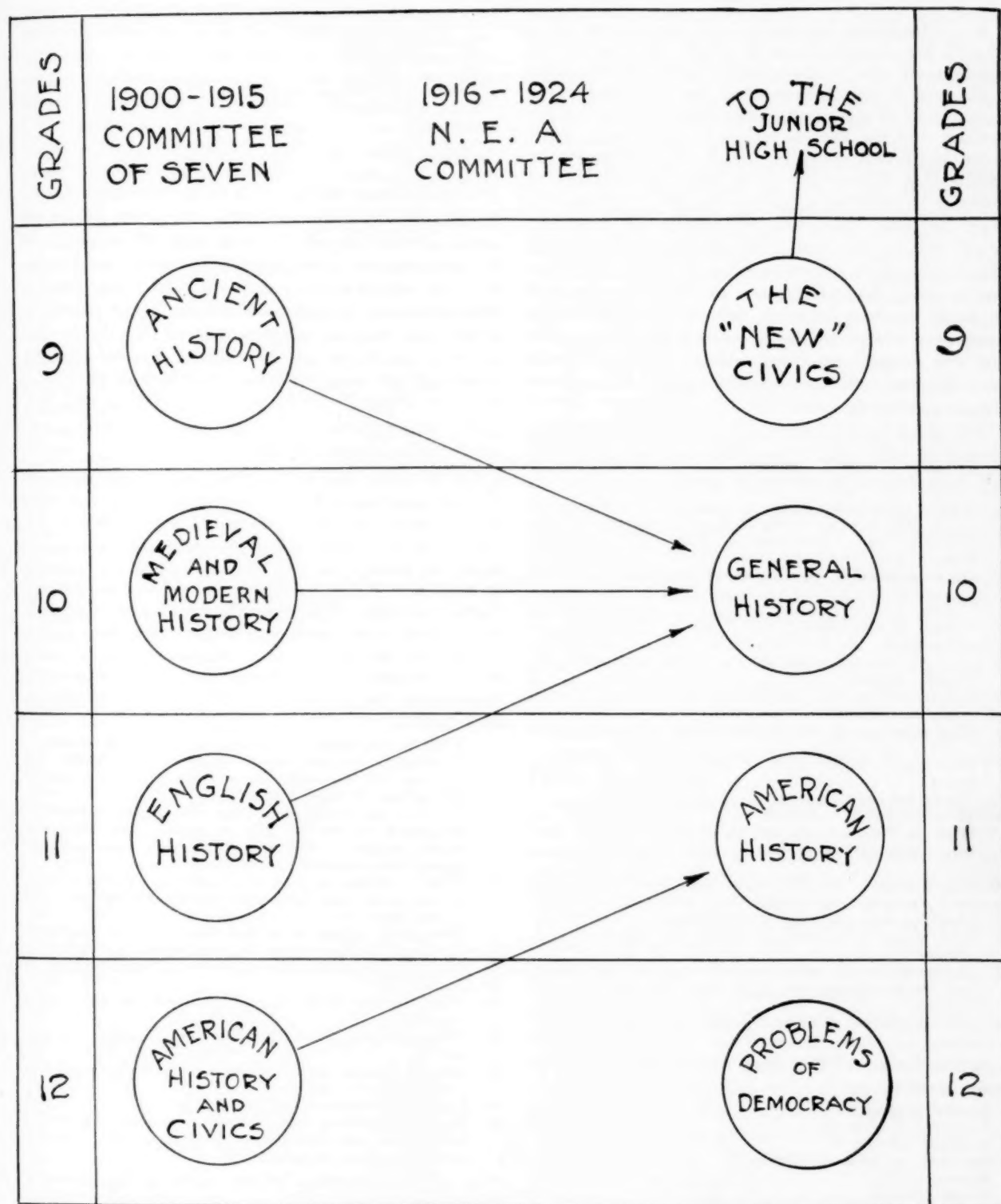
Hence, we come to the conclusion, which might have been foreseen at the beginning, that all social studies or social sciences are interdependent both in their content and methods. If sociologists should become more historically minded, historians have equal need of becoming more sociologically minded. This the most progressive historians are rapidly doing. The best work in the field of history at the present time, in my opinion, closely approaches what might be called illustrated sociology. Illustrated psychology doubtless it is also, but in so far as it deals with groups rather than with individuals, it is sociological rather than psychological. Individualistic history is, I believe, past or passing, and the future of history seems to be as a social study....

Some such composite inductive method covering the whole social life of humanity must manifestly be the instrument which sociology must employ to perfect itself, and scientific sociologists increasingly strive to employ such a method.

In conclusion, the very close relation not only in logical theory, but in practical work, of all the social studies, including history, and the dependence of all of these upon the work of the scientific historian have been demonstrated. It is to be hoped that the present decade will witness less bickering between the students of the social studies and a closer drawing together of them in their work. Co-operation, the sociologists believe, is the keyword to social progress in general. May it not also be the keyword to progress in the social studies?

To sociology is left the more general and universal aspects of the social life, such as those which concern the fundamentals of civilization, as traditions, customs, the relations of institutions, their origin, development, and functioning, the social mind, public opinion, the mechanism of social intercommunication and of social change. All of these sociology deals with in the most general way, utilizing concrete historical facts either as an inductive basis for the building up of universal principles or as illustrating the working of such principles.

GRAPH I.



THE DRIFT IN MANY SCHOOLS

VI

Cross Section of Present Curricula.

For information bearing on the courses now being offered, the committee relied chiefly on replies to a questionnaire sent to the heads of history departments in the high schools. More effort was expended in the preparation of this questionnaire than appears on the surface, and the replies received were studied from every angle that could be found. The summary of results that follows has been reduced to its lowest terms in the interest of simplicity, for it is hoped to reach not only those who will study this report in detail, but also the busy administrators who can only glance through it. Several other questionnaires were sent to school administrators and some reference will be made to them in what follows; but, while the teachers in a large number of cases replied with great care and precision, the replies from a good many of the administrators were hardly definite enough to furnish convincing facts.

The blank sent to the teachers was a large sheet printed on both sides. Down the left margin of one side were placed the following items:

1. Under each course given in your school indicate the grade and term in which it is generally taken. For example: 7a = first term in grade 7; 9b = second term in 9.....
2. If a textbook is used write in for each course the
 Author
 Title
 Date of Copyright
 Publisher
3. If class does not cover the entire book indicate pages usually omitted
4. For history courses, indicate by dates the period covered; as, 1610-1875.....
5. How many pupils are in each course this fall term?.....
6. How many pupils were in each course last spring term?
7. Check courses required of all pupils.....
8. If a course is required only of "Commercial" or "College Preparatory" or other similar groups, indicate which groups by writing name of group.....
9. Approximately for how many years has each course been given in your school?
10. Check courses you plan to discontinue.....
11. How many recitations per week are given to each course?
12. If current events form a regular part of the course, how many minutes per week are thus used in each course?
13. What periodical is in each pupils' hands as a text?....

Across the top of the sheet was the list of courses to be found below:

Ancient History.
 Ancient and Medieval.
 Medieval History.
 Medieval and Modern History.
 Modern History.
 World History.
 English History.
 American History.
 American History and Civics.
 Industrial History.
 Other History.

Civics.
 Community Civics.
 Vocational Civics.
 Economic Civics.
 Problems of Democracy.
 Social Problems.
 Sociology.
 Economics.
 Citizenship.
 Current Events.
 Name of Other Course.

This list was made complete even to the extent of extensive over-lapping in order that all varieties of practice might be indicated. This over-lapping made the task of tabulation and evaluation much more difficult than it would have been had the list been shorter and simpler, but it is believed that the results are more nearly related to the facts than they would have been had more stress been laid on ease of tabulation. A situation which is as complex as the one under consideration cannot be presented simply except at the expense of truth.

On the other side of the sheet was placed a list of general questions with the request that any one who could spare the time write a letter giving his views and practices, using the questions as suggestions not merely for direct answer, but for general discussion. Many helpful and some depressing replies resulted. Whatever the type of the letter, it was a part of the present situation. The fact that a teacher thinks that a few summer school courses would prepare him to teach the social studies is depressing, but it is a fact that cannot safely be disregarded.

1. What do you believe should be accomplished in courses in history? In economics? In sociology? What can we hope to accomplish as a claim for a reasonable recognition of these subjects?
2. What is the tendency in your community in the development of the teaching of history and the other social studies? Will you state your own attitude toward this tendency?
3. What conditions in your community or elsewhere seem to you to obstruct the proper development of teaching in this field?
4. What is the character of your school library facilities? How and to what extent do your pupils use libraries?
5. What is, in general, the character of your method of instruction?
6. What modern tests, if any, do you use with your pupils?
7. What methods of testing collateral reading do you use?
8. Do you require pupils to take one history course as prerequisite to another?
9. Do you advocate such a requirement?
10. In administration, are history, economics and civics grouped as one department in your school? If not, what is your arrangement?

In addition to other efforts made to dip into the elementary school practices, the following request was added for the high school teachers:

"As nearly as you can do so, please outline by grades the civics and history the pupils have had in the elementary grades before they enter your school."

Space was left blank for the list, and it generally remained blank. The high school teachers know as little about the previous training of the pupils who come to them as the colleges know about the previous training of those who go to college.

Table 1 shows the geographical distribution of the replies from teachers which could be used for purposes of tabulation. Professor McKinley reports that the proportion of replies received from the several states corresponds closely with the distribution of subscribers to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. Professor Tryon thinks the distribution is in fair accord with the school population of the respective states, but calls attention to the fact that the North Central States sent in a somewhat disproportionate number of answers. He feels, also, that the tabulations should be taken with a little salt, using the case of world

history as an illustration. He is certain that this course is offered in a much larger number of schools than is shown in the responses received. Since the world history course is offered in a larger proportion of the weaker schools than of the stronger ones, and since the weaker schools were likely to postpone answers until it was too late to use them, probably his criticism is a sound one. It is probable that the showing for some of the other courses is stronger or weaker than it should be.

In reply to this criticism, however, several things may be said. In the first place, it is not assumed that the tabulations below are mathematically accurate; all that can be inferred from them is the comparative standing of various courses in the curriculum. In the second place, the first 1,400 replies were tabulated as soon as they were received in order that the results might be used at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association. The next 1,000 were later tabulated without reference to the first 1,400, the results were summarized, and the two sets of summaries compared. It was clear that the relative position of courses in the two summaries ran nearly enough parallel to justify the belief that additional tabulations would not be widely different from these. In the third place, the results of our tabulations were compared with those of an investigation made by Professor Monroe, of the University of Illinois; and, while there were disagreements that bear out Professor Tryon's criticism so far as absolute accuracy is concerned, the differences do not affect the inferences as to the general comparative growth or decline of particular courses in the curriculum. In the fourth place, the results of the tabulations were submitted to discussion in two different forms at annual meetings of several organizations and were distributed for criticism to leading school men and teachers in all of the states without evoking any serious criticism of the picture they present.

At this point the reader should be cautioned against two things. He must not read argument into the present report. Here and there expressions will doubtless creep in which seem to be argumentative. These expressions may appear to support a course which is not approved by any member of the committee; but in reality they are as likely as not quotations from some apologist for such a course. The reader is also warned against the inference that figures showing the rapid movement of the crowd in any one direction constitute an argument that this direction is a wise one to follow. In educational as well as in other walks of life, quite the contrary may be the truth. It is possible that attention is called to a large group rushing headlong into the sea in order that the observer may avoid being involved in that group.

Table 2 is an effort to show the distribution of pupils among the various courses. The fact that a course is offered in a large number of schools is no evidence that it is reaching any considerable number

TABLE 1.

2404 questionnaires were received from high school history departments, distributed through the respective states as follows:

| | |
|----------------------|-----|
| Alabama | 20 |
| Arizona | 8 |
| Arkansas | 28 |
| California | 126 |
| Colorado | 17 |
| Connecticut | 38 |
| Delaware | 5 |
| District of Columbia | 11 |
| Florida | 12 |
| Georgia | 23 |
| Idaho | 22 |
| Illinois | 136 |
| Indiana | 153 |
| Iowa | 150 |
| Kansas | 93 |
| Kentucky | 30 |
| Louisiana | 25 |
| Maine | 51 |
| Maryland | 15 |
| Massachusetts | 83 |
| Michigan | 86 |
| Minnesota | 107 |
| Mississippi | 26 |
| Missouri | 60 |
| Montana | 14 |
| Nebraska | 57 |
| Nevada | 4 |
| New Hampshire | 21 |
| New Jersey | 46 |
| New Mexico | 5 |
| New York | 175 |
| North Carolina | 38 |
| North Dakota | 43 |
| Ohio | 140 |
| Oklahoma | 31 |
| Oregon | 15 |
| Pennsylvania | 116 |
| Rhode Island | 12 |
| South Carolina | 8 |
| South Dakota | 25 |
| Tennessee | 20 |
| Texas | 65 |
| Utah | 9 |
| Vermont | 21 |
| Virginia | 49 |
| Washington | 62 |
| West Virginia | 18 |
| Wisconsin | 78 |
| Wyoming | 7 |

TABLE 2.

The first column of figures below shows the distribution of 382,224 pupils among the respective courses in 504 large schools.

The second column shows the number of schools, in this list of 504, offering the respective courses.

| | <i>Pupils</i> | <i>Schools</i> |
|------------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Ancient History | 21,823 | 218 |
| Ancient and Medieval History | 24,988 | 203 |
| Medieval History | 7,003 | 58 |
| Medieval and Modern History | 11,155 | 128 |
| Modern History | 30,657 | 305 |
| World History | 7,891 | 80 |
| English History | 5,575 | 66 |
| American History | 59,208 | 504 |
| Civics | 12,692 | 165 |
| Community Civics | 32,727 | 203 |
| Vocational Civics | 3,796 | 34 |
| Economic Civics | 1,884 | 26 |
| Problems of Democracy | 5,099 | 80 |
| Social Problems | 2,922 | 50 |
| Sociology | 1,509 | 38 |
| Economics | 10,458 | 217 |

of pupils. Economics is reported in more schools than community civics, but the latter course reached more than three times as many pupils as the former. The figures in this table should be read, however, in the light of the fact that they represent only about one-fifth as many replies as were found useful in the other tabulations. Many of the replies gave no figures in this connection, and many that did give them were so carelessly made out that they were manifestly not reliable. The 504 most careful replies were selected and tabulated with the use of the adding machine and then checked back. The second column of figures indicates the number of schools out of this list offering the course for which the corresponding number of pupils is entered.

It happens that American history is the only course given under one name in all of the schools. This does not mean that ancient history may not be given in all of the schools, for it is associated in many of them with medieval history, and medieval history seems to be an almost negligible quantity in most of the reckonings. It will be observed that the great bulk of the pupils are still in the history courses as compared with the other social studies. In spite of its place in grade 11 or 12, where the ranks of the pupils are generally thinned out, the American history course reaches far more pupils than any other. But European history in some form, represented by ancient, medieval, and modern history, seems also to be reaching a very large proportion. If the number in American history be multiplied by four (since the pupils of each grade will probably take the course when they reach it) we have about 240,000. Bearing in mind that a large proportion of the pupils never reach grade 11, the inference may be made that practically all who graduate study this course for either a year or a half year. (The Bureau of Education reports the following distribution of high school pupils in the several grades: 9th, 42 per cent.; 10th, 26 per cent.; 11th, 18 per cent.; 12th, 14 per cent.) Not quite the same inference can be made for Euro-

pean history, for we do not know how many pupils take more than one of the courses in this subject. It seems probable, however, that all of the pupils who graduate take at least one course (a year or a half year) in European history. It is not likely that any large number of them take much more than one year of it.

Of the newer courses, community civics makes a remarkable showing. This showing is still more impressive if one remembers that this course is widely given in grade 8, which fact reduces somewhat the number of pupils who would otherwise be taking it in the four-year high school. While more schools offer ancient history as a separate course than offer community civics, a much larger number of pupils take the latter, showing that the classes in the latter are probably larger, the former being offered in many cases chiefly for those who are going to college. The other new courses—economics, sociology, and the problems courses, reach a comparatively small number of pupils as yet.

Calculations based on these figures convinced the writer that Professor Briggs' estimate of 1915 that the average pupil takes slightly over two years' work in the social studies during his four-year high school course is still substantially true. The reader will not be burdened with these calculations, partly because they are rather involved and partly because the writer has too little confidence in his mathematics to submit it to cold-blooded examination. Furthermore, information about what the mythical average pupil does or does not do is of little practical value.

The page of figures under the title "The Confusion of Tongues" is probably useful only to a reader who can devote to it somewhat careful study. It shows the total number of schools, among 2,404 replying, that offer each of the courses considered. It also shows the location of these courses in the high school grades. A question mark will be found near the bottom of the column marked "Grades." This is to show that many schools did not indicate in which grade various courses were offered. This fact is not of first importance, since it is pretty clear where most of the courses plump. The meticulous student will find discrepancies, and if he had seen the returns he would doubtless have found the basis for many more. All that is attempted is a general picture in rough outline.

This confusion of tongues makes different impressions on different minds. Some who are much concerned about the situation ask earnestly for a way out of the wilderness. Others believe that the confusion is an omen of a much better and wiser organization of the social studies; some of these persons have already planned curricula and are only waiting for the confusion to become unbearable in order to put them into effect. Unhappily for the future, there are so many different views among the latter that one confusion may follow another. Professor Tryon finds some order in the chaos. After a close study of the figures he believes that about one-third of the schools are under the influence of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies; a second third under that of the Com-

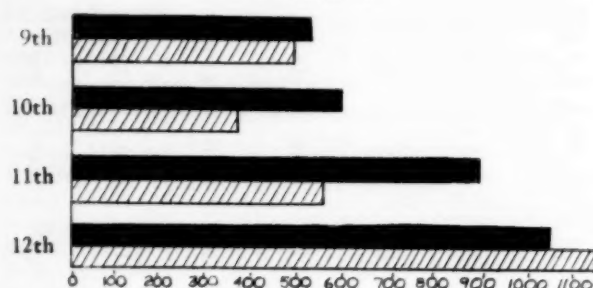
THE CONFUSION OF TONGUES

The following figures are based on the 2404 questionnaires. They show the number of schools offering the respective courses last semester.

| Grades | Ancient History | Ancient and Medieval | Medieval History | Medieval and Modern | Modern History | World History | English History | American History | American History and Civics | Civics | Community Civics | Vocational Civics | Economic Civics | Problems of Democracy | Social Problems | Sociology | Economics |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|------------------|---------------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------------|--------|------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|
| ⁹ (1 yr.) | 460 | 290 | 9 | 16 | 11 | 42 | 30 | 14 | 9 | 66 | 246 | 35 | 13 | 2 | 3 | | 4 |
| ⁹ ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) | 132 | 70 | 39 | 7 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 36 | 252 | 96 | 36 | 1 | 4 | | 4 |
| ¹⁰ (1 yr.) | 234 | 318 | 61 | 364 | 349 | 180 | 28 | 15 | 11 | 34 | 25 | 4 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 8 |
| ¹⁰ ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) | 60 | 49 | 46 | 63 | 58 | 8 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 26 | 36 | 13 | 19 | 2 | 8 | 3 | 13 |
| ¹¹ (1 yr.) | 26 | 17 | 17 | 218 | 400 | 21 | 131 | 371 | 129 | 93 | 6 | 1 | 11 | 18 | 12 | 13 | 64 |
| ¹¹ ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) | 3 | 7 | 21 | 25 | 49 | 7 | 27 | 114 | 14 | 105 | 3 | 2 | 12 | 11 | 41 | 40 | 135 |
| ¹² (1 yr.) | 5 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 32 | 6 | 26 | 480 | 487 | 173 | 13 | 2 | 7 | 158 | 54 | 57 | 192 |
| ¹² ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 11 | 233 | 37 | 328 | 13 | 7 | 20 | 110 | 110 | 107 | 384 |
| ? | 149 | 144 | 15 | 118 | 195 | 54 | 85 | 243 | 180 | 216 | 104 | 16 | 13 | 39 | 58 | 53 | 210 |
| Totals | 1070 | 897 | 210 | 832 | 1109 | 326 | 340 | 1476 | 873 | 1077 | 698 | 176 | 137 | 343 | 292 | 276 | 1014 |

mittee of Seven; and only a third are without chart or compass. Even if this optimistic view is correct, and it seems to bear analysis, it still argues sad lack of leadership in this field of education.

GRAPH 2.



This graph shows the relative popularity of the older (black lines) and the newer courses (hatched lines) in each of the four high school grades.²¹

Table 3 contains a comparison of the distribution of courses in 1914 (ten years ago), with the distribution revealed by the present investigation. Professors Henry Johnson and Thomas H. Briggs collected the earlier figures and contributed their findings to the annual report of the Commissioner of Education for 1915.²² The figures for the History Inquiry are multiplied by three for purposes of comparison, Professor Briggs having received three times as many replies to his questionnaire as were received to that of the History Inquiry. His classification of courses does not correspond in all of its items with ours; and in both investigations there is some confusion due to the fact that replies do not always indicate whether American history and civics are offered together or separately. To obviate some of the confusion due to the different classification of courses, such groupings as the following are made: non-American history, ancient-medieval-modern history, etc. The comparison has no bearing on the possible total increase of the number of courses offered in all of the schools. The number of schools has, of course, greatly increased, but this comparison

TABLE 3.

| | Briggs 1914 | History Inquiry multiplied by 3 1923 |
|---|--------------------|--|
| Non-American History ¹ | 16,837 | 14,342 |
| English History | 4,625 | 1,020 |
| General History | 326 | 978 |
| American History | 6,201 | 7,047 |
| Civics of all kinds | 6,276 ² | 8,883 ² |
| Advanced Civics (Grades 11-12) | 5,076 ² | 4,338 ² |
| Elementary Civics (Grades 9-10) | 1,200 | 4,545 |
| Economics | 2,046 | 3,042 |
| Sociology | | 826 |
| Problems Courses | | 1,905 |
| Ancient History | 6,141 | 5,901 |
| Medieval & Modern | 5,745 | 6,443 |
| Ancient, Medieval & Modern... .. | 11,886 | 12,344 |

¹ Grouped because of confusion of terms and figures.

² Includes Civics with some American History courses.

indicates only the relative standing of courses in the two periods in a corresponding number of schools.

Among the conspicuous facts brought out are the following: the total offerings in non-American history have fallen off somewhat in the decade, explainable in large measure through the striking decrease in offerings of English history. Ancient history declined to a somewhat less degree than is to be expected, in view of the very general lack of interest in the course, the fact being due, doubtless, to its use as a college preparatory subject. General history has increased by 200 per cent., a very modest estimate of the facts in the opinion of a number of correspondents. Civics in grades 11-12 has fallen off, while civics in grades 10-11 has increased more rapidly than any other course, which growth is more impressive when one remembers that community civics has also been largely introduced into grade 8. Economics has increased by 50 per cent., and sociology has arrived in respectable numbers, both courses generally being found in grade 12, and thus explaining, with the arrival of problems of democracy and social problems, the falling off in civics in grades 11-12. If all of the figures are grouped, eliminating duplications as far as possible, the total of courses sponsored by the Committee of Seven will be found to have decreased somewhat, and those of the more recent tendencies to have markedly increased. The following figures are not meant to be meticulously correct, but the general impression conveyed by them is not far from the truth:

TABLE 4.

| | 1914 | 1923 |
|---|--------|--------|
| History and Civics as of the Committees of 5 and 7: | | |
| Non-American History..... | | |
| American History..... | | |
| Advanced Civics..... | 28,114 | 25,727 |
| Other Social Studies: | | |
| World History..... | | |
| Elementary Civics..... | | |
| Economics, Sociology, Problems..... | 3,572 | 11,296 |

Professors W. S. Monroe and I. O. Foster in 1921 collected information as to the offerings in social studies in the North Central States. They considered returns from 475 highly developed schools, being the number replying out of 1273 member-schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. A comparison between their figures and ours is, therefore, not an equal one, our replies having

TABLE 5.

Monroe, Illinois, report for 475 schools
(Multiply by 5 for our 2400)

| | Monroe | History Inquiry |
|----------------------------------|--------|-----------------|
| Ancient History | 1300 | 1070 |
| Ancient & Medieval History | 915 | 897 |
| Medieval History | 390 | 210 |
| Medieval & Modern History | 935 | 832 |
| Modern History | 1355 | 1109 |
| English History | 370 | 326 |
| World History | 195 | 340 |
| American History | 2335 | 2549 |
| Community Civics | 1370 | 698 |
| Sociology | 780 | 276 |
| Economics | 1580 | 1014 |

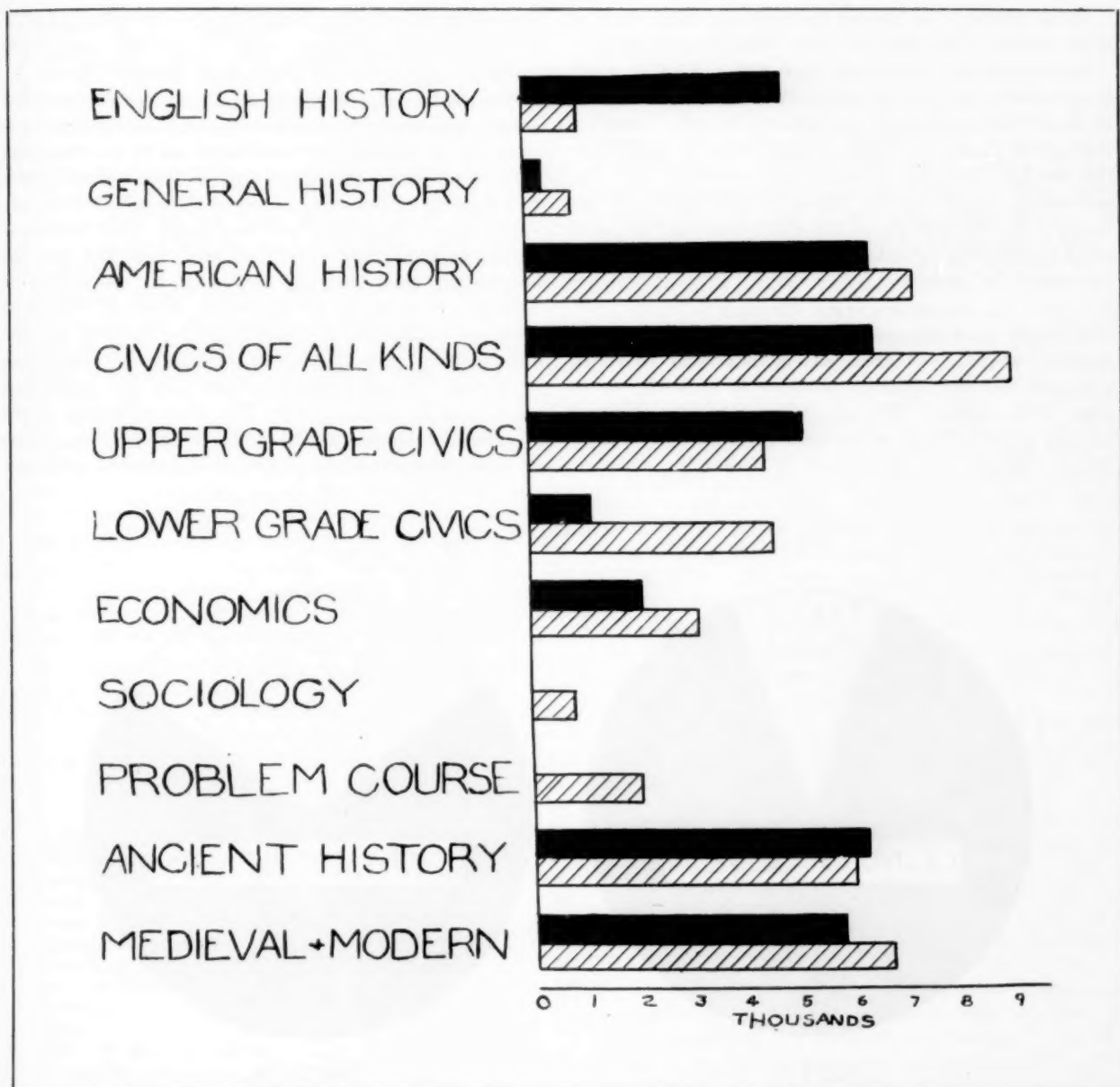
come from schools of all kinds in all parts of the country. For ease of comparison the Illinois figures have been multiplied by five. Table 5 may be studied by the reader with the foregoing cautions in mind.

American history runs pretty evenly in the two columns, as does English history, and medieval and modern. Most courses do not run as nearly parallel as might be expected even in the circumstances. World history is much stronger in the History Inquiry column, which is to be expected if it is more likely to be offered in the weaker schools, the Illinois returns having come, as is indicated above, from a highly

selective group. Most of the other social study courses make a surprisingly strong showing, creating the impression, if all of our calculations are correct, that the social studies are more popular among progressive educators of the North Central States than in other parts of the country. Even with the divergence between the two sets of figures, however, the general relation of the several courses to each other is approximately the same in both columns.

Some little importance may be attached to the sale of textbooks as an indication of the popularity of courses. The publishers were asked to supply infor-

GRAPH 3.



The lines are based on the number of schools offering the respective courses, the situation in 1914 showing in black and that in 1923 in hatched lines.

mation as to their sales of high school texts in the various social studies in 1918 and in 1923. Such well-known houses as Allyn and Bacon, Ginn and Co., D. C. Heath, Macmillans, B. H. Sanborn, and the World Book Co., supplied information quite generously, when assured that the figures published would not be detailed. Minute accuracy for the results of this effort is not claimed; all that can be inferred from the following figures is that the sale of textbooks for high school use in the social studies other than history has grown much more rapidly than the corresponding sale of history texts:

| | 1918 | 1923 |
|---|---------|-----------|
| High School History Texts..... | 612,000 | 1,143,000 |
| High School Texts in other Social Studies | 209,000 | 713,000 |

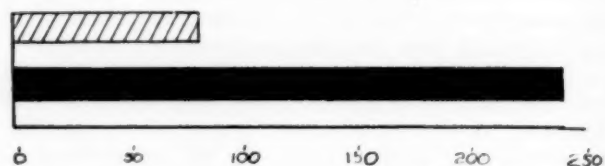
While the sale of history texts has doubled, that of texts in the other subjects have more than trebled.

Economics has increased over 500 per cent., sociology about 250, civics nearly 200, while the highest increase of any branch of history is 138. Against this set of facts, the reader should bear in mind that the market for history texts was already near the saturation point where increase is hardly to be thought of, while many of the other courses were new or of recent origin, and every increase showed a large percentage of growth.

ADMINISTRATIVE OPINION.

A study of tendencies must consider not only the changes that have taken place, but also those in prospect and the opinions of those in authority as to what is desirable. The expansion or contraction of history in the schools in the near future is likely to be largely affected by the opinion of principles, superin-

GRAPH 4.

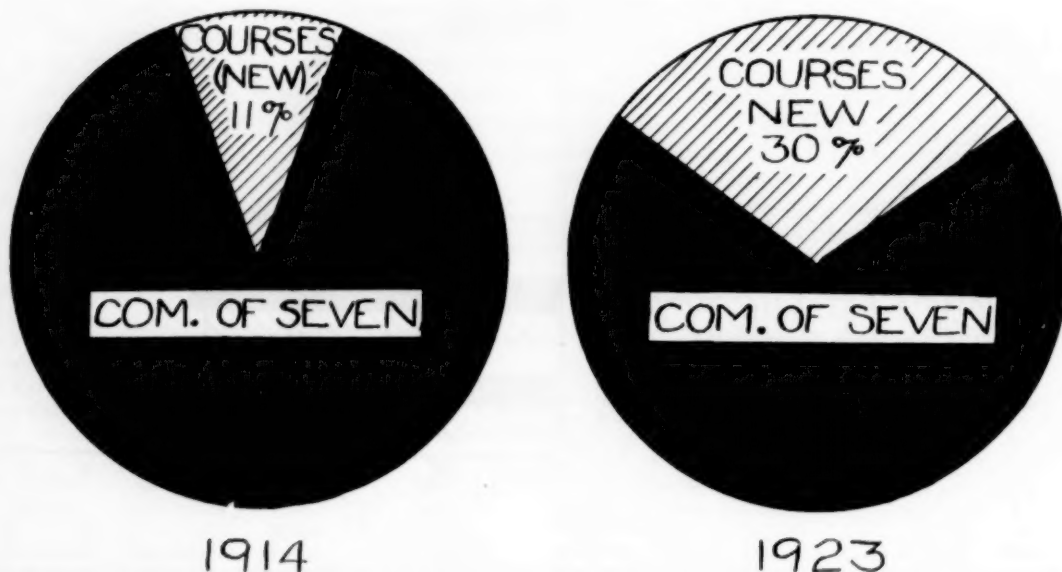


Comparative growth in the sale of textbooks (1918-1923) in percentages. History is in hatched lines and other social studies in black lines.

tendents, and those other administrators who have to do with curriculum making. It, therefore, seemed desirable to find out what such persons believe the tendencies should be. The fact is not overlooked that opinion often changes with the wind, and that prophesy based on it is likely to be disappointing.

The tables offered below are the result of extended correspondence with several hundred administrators, some of it confidential and some of it in the form of lists of direct questions sent in mimeograph form to a number of persons in each of the States. The correspondence was analyzed repeatedly from different points of view, and it is probable that the general impression derived from a reading of the tables is correct. At the risk of repetition, however, attention must be called to the fact that the opinion of administrators, not of history teachers or specialists in history, is what is presented. In the reckoning must also be included the fact that different types of administrators see the social studies from points of view determined by different degrees of intimacy

GRAPH 5.



The basis of this graph is percentages, 89 per cent. of all of the courses being based on Committee of Seven recommendations in 1914 and only 70 per cent. in 1923.²⁵

with them. The supervisors of social studies are likely to be most intimate, the general supervisors of high schools somewhat less, the principals, busy with many other matters, still less, and the superintendents least of all. One disrespectful iconoclast even suggested that some administrators are likely to be carried away by the most recent spell-binding address of the educational orator. One knows how to discount the educational orator, but he is an element in the situation which must not be overlooked if education is to be wisely directed. All of these elements have been weighted in so far as capacity for weighing them was available.

All of the tables have been sent out in printed form, once in January and once in February, to several hundred correspondents; and they have been offered for discussion at a number of gatherings of teachers, professors and administrators. Ninety-five per cent. of the comment is that the impression left by the figures is correct. A few critics have called attention to manifest weaknesses. It is true that the terminology is not definite, but neither is the thinking which the terminology represents. The items overlap and leave a sense of confusion, but any accurate presentation of the facts examined will necessarily leave a sense of confusion for the facts are themselves confused.

Among other sources for Table 6 a number of correspondents were asked to indicate their attitude toward the increase or decrease of emphasis on the items mentioned. Thirty times as many favored extending the study of problems of democracy as opposed it. Nine times as many wished to cut down ancient history as favored extending it. Since community civics has been so rapidly extended, the location of this item in the list was surprising. Supplementary inquiry revealed that a good many observers are disappointed with the work now being done under that name. It is apparent that American history, the problems courses, and recent history are the popular items, and that the study of European history, except as world history, does not meet with great favor from this group of observers. The study of the constitution is low in the list in spite of recent demand that it be legislated into the curriculum. Correspondents explained that this is true because good teachers will take care of the problem without

TABLE 6.

| | |
|---------------------------------|---------|
| Problems of Democracy | 30 |
| American History | 27 |
| Recent History | 14 |
| Social Problems | 8.3 |
| World History | 7.2 |
| Economics | 6.7 |
| Civics in general | 6.5 |
| Local Government | 4.6 |
| Sociology | 4.2 |
| Current Events | 4.2 |
| Study of the Constitution | 4.2 |
| Community Civics | 3.1 |
| European History | 2.6 |
| Vocational Civics | 2.2 |
| Ancient History | minus 9 |

TABLE 7.

| | Percentage dropped |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Social Problems | $\frac{1}{2}\%$ |
| United States History | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| World History | 1 |
| Economic Civics | 1 |
| Vocational Civics | 1 |
| Civics | 1-1/3 |
| Economics | 1-1/3 |
| Community Civics | 2 |
| Problems of Democracy | 2 |
| Sociology | 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Ancient and Medieval History | 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Modern History | 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Medieval & Modern History | 5 |
| Medieval History | 6 |
| Ancient History | 6 |
| English History | 8 |

special provision for it in separate courses or as a specially favored item.

Table 7 is somewhat more objective, but this again is important by reason of the fact that it indicates drift of opinion rather than because of the detailed facts. In the questionnaire sent to teachers, correspondents were asked to indicate what courses they intend to drop in the immediate future. The information was furnished by teachers, but it must be remembered that it is generally the opinion of the administrator which decides whether a course is to be dropped from the curriculum or not. One critic of this table calls attention to the fact that teachers would report that a course is to be dropped even though it is to be replaced by a very similar course under another name; if, for example, problems of democracy is to replace social problems. In reply to this valid objection, it may be said that it argues in support of rather than against the inferences toward which the table points. The older history courses are offered under fairly well standardized names, while the newer courses are the ones which are likely to be substituted for each other without much change taking place except in the name. Yet it is the older history courses which appear at the lower end of the list, showing that they will be dropped in the largest numbers. The fact that economic and vocational civics are high in the list may be due to the fact that they are so very new in the few places where they are offered that they have not yet been given anything like a trial, or it may be due to the fact that they are actually giving satisfactory results. The reader is cautioned against trying to make minute inferences, however. If he will draw a line above ancient and medieval history and below sociology, he will separate nearly all of the older courses from nearly all of the newer ones. The older are at the end where dropping is popular. This large inference is all that can safely be drawn from this table.

The questionnaires sent to superintendents and principals asked, among other things, whether they are disposed to see more or less emphasis placed on each of the following general subjects: history, civics, economics. Since six times as many replies came from principals as from superintendents (a total of several thousand) the figures for the latter were

multiplied by six to facilitate comparison. In Table 8 the figures for superintendents are in parenthesis just above those for principals. It will be observed that, among those who favor greater emphasis on history, the principals outnumber the superintendents. The latter favor civics and economics, and the figures seem to indicate that they are about equally well disposed to both subjects (1224 and 1266). In fact, all of the returns seem to indicate no sharp differentiation in thought among administrators between civics and economics. This confusion of terms may indicate only an indefinite aspiration toward such study as may stabilize social conditions through a scientific study of modern problems. Among those favoring less emphasis on history the superintendents far outnumber the principals. Among the apostles of the status quo, all of the figures run pretty evenly. From these questionnaires and from the correspondence, it is perfectly clear that the superintendents, as a class, are strongly in favor of replacing much of

the history by a more extended teaching of recent and present problems. Many principals move in the same direction, but not nearly so insistently. Some critics of the figures say that the principals, having themselves recently been high school teachers, are more familiar with the situation than are the superintendents and that therefore their judgment is more conservative. Other critics say that the superintendents are nearer to the drift of public opinion and therefore more responsive to it. The definition of public opinion here must be left to the reader.

TABLE 8.

| | <i>History</i> | <i>Civics</i> | <i>Economics</i> |
|--|----------------|----------------|------------------|
| Voting for more emphasis.. | (438) 712 | (1224) 1044 | (1266) 1106 |
| Voting for less emphasis.... | (678) 196 | (48) 42 | (54) 72 |
| Voting to leave the subjects as they are..... | (534) 531 | (330) 364 | (301) 303 |

VII.

Experimenting with a Test.

After the Inquiry was well under way, Mr. J. T. Giles, Supervisor of High Schools in Wisconsin, suggested that one or more tests be given. While this suggestion was made without a full realization of the character of the Inquiry, the committee decided to experiment in this direction. Standardized tests have recently loomed so large in educational discussion that it seemed likely that some useful negative information would be secured, even if no positive facts were the outcome.

The committee looked forward to the possibility of positive information along the following general lines: What kind of facts are we teaching to history classes? With what success are we teaching these facts, from the standpoint of general information or from that of other measurable purposes? Is the teaching of history in different parts of the country to any degree homogeneous? That is, when a pupil says that he has completed an advanced course in American history and civics, does this statement convey any definite knowledge of what he has done?

One test was given in the course in American history and civics, which is found in all parts of the country in grade 11 or 12, to two or three sections of pupils who completed the course in January, 1924, and to one section of pupils in the same schools, differing, as far as possible, only in the fact that they had not entered the course being tested. This plan was followed with some degree of regularity in thirty-six schools distributed through six States, and representing different sections of the country. The former groups were called the "regulars" and the latter the "control." The expectation was that the difference between the answers of the two groups would have some bearing on the success of this particular course, and that the answers of the control group might reveal something of the character of the work in the grades below the eleventh.

History testing on a large scale had not previously been attempted. Consequently, when Dr. Ben D. Wood consented to take general supervision of the experiment, he did so with the clear understanding that it was a mere experiment, from which nothing was definitely expected but experience. He associated with himself a committee of men who have been conducting the course in Contemporary Civilization in Columbia University, and they set the paper. Mr. Giles secured the co-operation of a number of high school supervisors, who took care of the distribution of the papers and instructions to the schools in which the test was given. Mrs. Wood, who has had extensive experience in scoring tests in other subjects, supervised the process of evaluating the returns and made the graphs which follow. Whatever the test has revealed is due largely to her painstaking and energetic administration of the most difficult part of the enterprise.

There were many difficulties in the way. The time was too short for sufficient correspondence with the schools. Consequently, there was not a little misunderstanding of the instructions, and many of the returns were useless. The period of the Inquiry included only one semester-end, and that was in the middle of the academic year. Consequently, it was difficult to find groups of pupils who met the specifications. In some States the schools do not like to interrupt the work of a course just before the final examinations. This is particularly true in New York State, where pupils are being prepared for Regents examinations. However, thanks to the tactful management of Mr. E. P. Smith, of New York, and others in other States, some of the difficulties were overcome. The whole enterprise, because of its indefinite character, would tend to drive frantic one who is accustomed to scientific exactness; but, now that it is finished, it seems to have been worth while.

The reader must take the trouble to understand the organization of the test in order to estimate the validity of such conclusions as may be drawn from the experiment. The paper was in two main parts, to be given on successive days, each part to occupy the time of one recitation period—forty-five minutes. The regular and control groups took each part on the same day, and the time limits were an essential part of the arrangement. Unhappily, the paper turned out to be somewhat too long for most schools. It is necessary that experienced high school teachers take part in such undertakings as this if errors of this kind are to be avoided. One does not know by intuition how much a group of pupils can do in a given length of time. The questions were of the completion type, each offering five alternatives, which were numbered for the convenience of the pupils. Answers were indicated by placing a number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) in brackets, which were to be found at the left of each question. Such parts of the following explanation as are quoted are taken from notes kindly furnished by Mr. Joseph McGoldrick, a member of the committee which formulated the questions.

Part I contained history questions, and was divided into three sections. Section 1, consisting of forty questions, was upon "old-line history, with its dates, battles, and treaties—in general, old-fashioned political history, stressing personalities. The incidents were simple and factual. Emphasis was laid on the colonial period and the era of slavery, with little on the period since the Civil War....This history we believe to be going out of date." Sample questions from this section follow:

15. The Albany Plan of Union was proposed: (1) As a means of protection against the Spaniards; (2) As a means of monopolizing the fur trade; (3) As a scheme to secure independence from Great Britain; (4) As a means of developing land speculation in the back country; (5) As a means of establishing a more satisfactory relation between the colonies and the mother country.
16. Bacon's Rebellion: (1) Was one of the preliminary events of the American Revolution occurring immediately after the Treaty of 1783; (2) Was an outbreak in Virginia during Governor Berkeley's régime; (3) Was a protest against payment of quit rents to Lord Baltimore; (4) Was a civil war between East and West Jersey; (5) Took place in Massachusetts during the critical period.
17. The outbreak of the hostilities of the Revolution took place at: (1) Lexington; (2) Bunker Hill; (3) Bennington; (4) Ticonderoga; (5) Oriskany.
18. John Hancock was: (1) One of George Washington's generals; (2) Governor of New York; (3) President of the Continental Congress; (4) Commander of the "Bon Homme Richard"; (5) Ambassador to Holland.
19. The Boston Tea Party was: (1) Given by Mrs. Washington in honor of the evacuation of that city by the British; (2) An immense festival held on Boston Common when the victory of Concord was announced; (3) A secret meeting of Samuel Adams, James Otis, Paul Revere and others to plan revolutionary measures; (4) The destruction of the East India Company's tea by the colonists; (5) A tea-riot that resulted in the Boston Massacre.
57. The Interstate Commerce Commission for years was unable to accomplish much because: (1) Of the lack of the rate making power; (2) Of bribery of its members; (3) Congress refused to appropriate money for its expenses; (4) The various administrations preferred to bring suit before state and federal courts; (5) Of the persistence of the railroads in forming pools.
58. The Civil Service Commission established in 1883: (1) Brought about a speedy classification of all government employees; (2) Prevented politics from any longer interfering in government service; (3) Failed to exert more than an advisory influence; (4) Was finally discontinued; (5) Satisfactorily accomplished a long-needed reform.
59. Taft and Roosevelt became political opponents because: (1) Roosevelt felt that Taft was not carrying out his policies; (2) Taft had refused to permit Roosevelt to dictate his cabinet; (3) Roosevelt remained in Washington and attempted to defeat Taft's policies in Congress; (4) Taft spoke openly against Roosevelt's third term ambitions; (5) Roosevelt had opposed Taft's nomination because he considered him a conservative.
60. Woodrow Wilson's book, "The New Freedom," advocated: (1) The enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment; (2) Federal Pensions for all incapacitated in industry by accidents; (3) Repeal of the income tax; (4) No longer holding any subject peoples such as Filipinos and Porto Ricans; (5) Destruction of the invisible government of wealth.
61. Federal labor legislation has been ineffective because: (1) Of the fact that the work of laborers in industry is regulated by State laws only; (2) Capital has such a strong hold on Congress; (3) Organized labor prefers to have no government interference; (4) Congress is forbidden by the Constitution to pass laws affecting industry; (5) Though the laws have been adequate, there has been little effort to enforce them.

Section 3, questions 81-150, "covers a very much broader range, including such matters as the development of industrial and agricultural methods, religion, education, scientific progress, labor movements, and the general development of culture and ideas." For example:

130. The system of national banks was: (1) The outgrowth of the United States Bank; (2) The work of the nationally minded Whigs in the 40's; (3) Part of the Civil War plan to float government bonds; (4) Instituted by the Republicans to aid in reconstruction; (5) An attempt of the great banking interests to control the national finance.
131. The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 was designed to: (1) Outlaw the "money trust"; (2) Provide a greater and more flexible volume of currency; (3) Do away with all control of the money market in favor of free competition; (4) Supersede the old national banks; (5) Combat the growing demand for agricultural credit.
132. A high protective tariff has always been most actively supported by: (1) The working men whose wages it is to benefit; (2) The great import and export merchants; (3) The farmer, who wants to keep out foreign manufacturers; (4) Political economists, who see the scientific arguments in its favor; (5) Manufacturers who desire to avoid foreign competition.
133. The increase in the cost of living in the U. S. since 1900 is: (1) The result of the rapid increase of industrial trusts; (2) The result of the higher wages extorted by organized labor; (3) The result of the rapid increase in the world supply of gold; (4) The result of the falling off in production of American business; (5) The result of a combination of world conditions

Section 2, questions 41-80, "represented the newer approach to political history, with greater emphasis on recent history. The questions aim to stress causation and development." Illustrations of these are:

and American policies in the interests of American business men.

134. Of the cotton cloth manufactured in the U. S., Southern mills now make: (1) About one-tenth; (2) Almost a quarter; (3) Between a quarter and a half; (4) Over half; (5) Over three-quarters.

Part II was divided into three sections—A 1 and 2, and B.

Section A 1, questions 1-25, consisted of "old-line civics; that is, theoretical civics—the legal form of government as it might be studied from statutes and constitutions, without regard to its operation." Following are a few of these questions:

10. The President's cabinet is: (1) An advisory body of department heads and Congressional leaders; (2) An unofficial group of his friends; (3) An official organization of the heads of the executive departments; (4) A committee of Congress; (5) A meeting of the governors of the states.
11. The Supreme Court of the United States: (1) Is elected by the people; (2) Is chosen by the President and confirmed by the Senate; (3) Is appointed by Congress; (4) Fills its own vacancies; (5) Is elected by the Senate.
12. The phrase "separation of powers" refers to the: (1) Different functions of the various executive departments; (2) Separate authority of the Senate and House of Representatives; (3) Balancing of the powers of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the government; (4) Separate jurisdiction of the different federal courts; (5) Independence of the governors of the various states.
13. The constitution of Wisconsin was drawn up by: (1) The legislature; (2) The people; (3) Congress; (4) The members of the territorial judiciary; (5) A convention.
14. The President of the United States is chosen by: (1) Direct vote of the people; (2) A joint session of the Senate and the House of Representatives; (3) An Electoral Commission; (4) Electors chosen by the people; (5) National conventions.

Section A 2, questions 26-50, "might be called dynamic civics. It stressed actual government, both descriptive and problematic." For instance:

11. The Dartmouth College Case involved: (1) Freedom of instruction in the colleges; (2) The unconstitutional revoking of a charter; (3) The right of a college to exclude students on religious grounds; (4) The right of a state to establish a free public college; (5) The right of a college chartered by a state to exclude students on religious grounds.
12. Negro citizenship: (1) Was conferred by the Dred Scot decision; (2) Made possible by the Fourteenth Amendment; (3) Was decreed by the Emancipation Proclamation; (4) Is guaranteed by the Republican Party; (5) Can be obtained only from the state governments; (6) Does not exist in the South.
13. The Fourteenth Amendment: (1) Freed the negro; (2) Defined citizenship; (3) Forbade any state to deny anyone the right to vote because of race, color or previous condition of servitude; (4) Provided for woman suffrage; (5) Provided slight changes in the system of electing the President.
14. The Federal Courts have declared minimum wage legislation unconstitutional on the basis of: (1) The police powers of the state; (2) Violation of property rights; (3) The theory of reserved powers; (4) Liberty of contract; (5) The Interstate Commerce clause.
45. William Tweed was: (1) A United States Senator from Pennsylvania; (2) A member of Grant's Cabinet; (3) A San Francisco politician; (4) A New York City Boss; (5) An advocate of Civil Service Reform.

Section B, questions 51-80, represented something quite original.

"In preparing all the rest of the examination the committee permitted a pass upon the correctness and incorrectness of all questions, endeavoring to have one correct, and only one correct, answer for each completion question. However, the committee believed that many of the more important aspects of American history cannot be reduced to undebatable questions. Rather they felt that while all would agree to the importance of many questions, there would be the widest diversity as to the correct answers to these admittedly important questions. The committee felt that these, despite their controversial character, were probably more important than many of the questions upon which all could agree. We, therefore, prepared thirty questions, for which we set up no standard correct answer. In each we endeavored to have one of the members of the committee subscribe. In some cases it was necessary to have two or three to meet the opinions of the committee. These questions involved some controversial matters in history and controversial questions in other public matters in which history might possibly be expected to influence opinions. These questions were scored individually, and were not graded." The following illustrate this type of question:

23. The Prohibition Amendment: (1) Should be strictly enforced as part of the constitution; (2) Should be liberally interpreted to permit light wines and beer; (3) Should be removed from the Constitution because it is un-American; (4) Is unconstitutional and violates states rights; (5) Should be repealed because it is unenforceable.
24. The I. W. W. are: (1) Believers in industrial unionism; (2) Agents of the old monarchistic German Imperial Government; (3) The American representatives of the Russian soviet republic; (4) Composed chiefly of immigrants from Eastern Europe; (5) Revolutionary Socialists.
25. The chief purpose of labor unions is: (1) To promote strikes; (2) To furnish jobs for highly paid labor leaders; (3) To increase wages through increasing prices; (4) To raise the standard of living of the workers by collective bargaining; (5) To overthrow the capitalistic system.
26. The right of collective bargaining is: (1) Guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment; (2) Essential to harmonious relations in industry; (3) A privilege wise employers grant; (4) A concession started by labor leaders for their own gain; (5) Fully satisfied by an "inside" or "company" union.
27. In the Southeast negroes are excluded from voting: (1) To keep them in their proper place; (2) To protect them from dangerous demagogues; (3) To insure the economic and political supremacy of the whites; (4) To carry out the spirit, if not the letter, of the Fifteenth Amendment; (5) To protect Southern womanhood.

For the purposes of the present investigation, Section B was not well adapted, and it is not included in the tabulations. It would have been more useful had Dr. Wood's original plan been followed. According to this, one completion in each question, while in a sense a matter of opinion, would have made a statement in which nearly all informed, disciplined, and disinterested minds would agree; another completion would have been manifestly untrue to all such per-

sons, and three others would have been in the twilight zone between these two. Tabulation would then have been reasonably simple, and it might have been possible to find out the effect of the American history and civics on the minds of the pupils. Some members of the committee which worked out the details of the question paper planned to test matters which are so much more refined than this that the limits of the History Inquiry could not be extended to handle their tabulation and evaluation.

Here may be mentioned one of the dangers in the present teaching of the social studies in some quarters. This danger lies in the confusion of thought between opinions of ignorant people and those of trained minds, on the one hand, and, on the other, the difference between opinions and mere emotions or impressions. Closely related with this confusion is the apparent belief on the part of some teachers and college professors that subjective unsupported opinions are rather more important than practical men might generally consider them. Out of this situation sometimes grows a disposition on the part of teachers to permit pupils to air what are called opinions in unprofitable class discussion. The committee doubtless meant to check up this kind of thing in Section B, and probably an educational psychologist could have made very definite inductions from the answers in this section had time been available. It may be, however, that the testing of knowledge goes a long way toward the testing of mental ability. One of the values of a standard test seems to arise

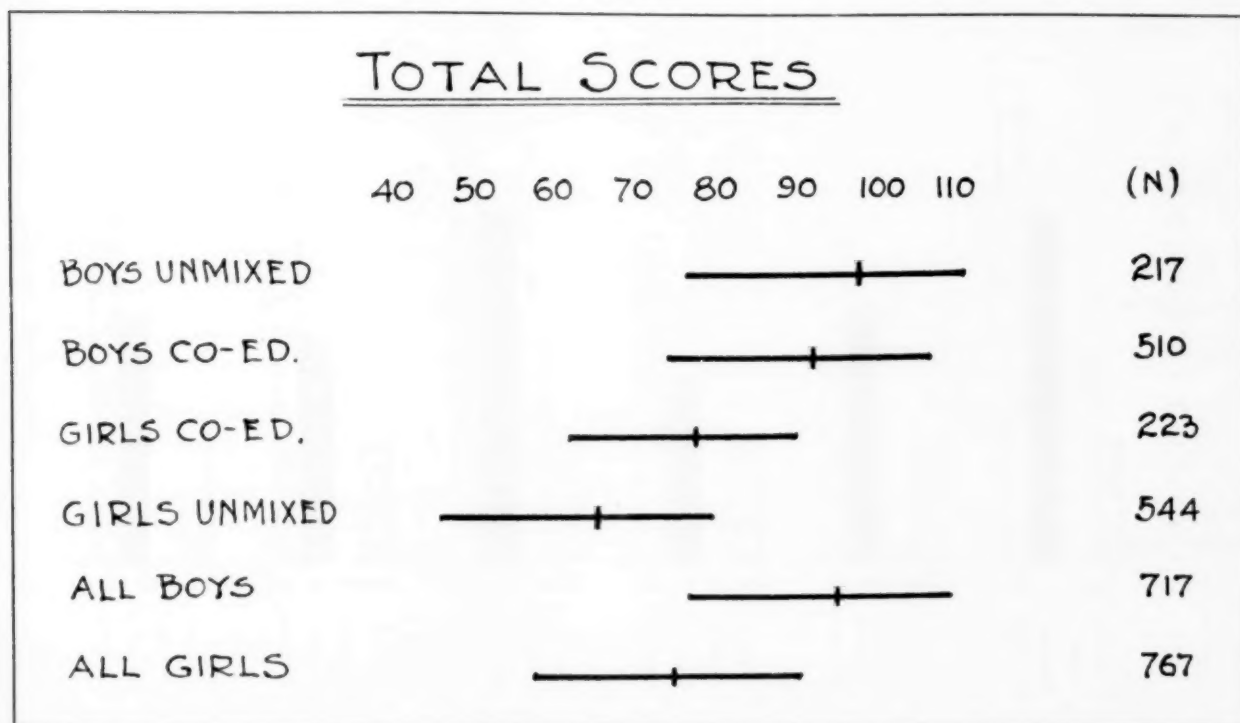
from the opportunity it offers of discovering just what facts the persons tested have and can handle. The following remarks from Dr. Wood, written in a wholly different connection, and quoted without an opportunity to secure his permission, may not be out of place here:

Neither in theory, nor in practice, so far as the writer has been able to learn, is any recognition given in the Columbia University Law School to the false doctrine of a general separation of "reasoning power" and "mere knowledge of facts." There is a salubrious absence both of that fetishism of the ill-defined abstraction "reasoning ability" and of that unwarranted contempt for "mere knowledge" or "mere facts" which has in recent times marred the public utterances of some able and distinguished teachers. In the practical work of grading examinations it is clearly recognized that real thinking cannot occur in the absence of facts appropriate to the problem, and further that the mere acquisition and retention of facts is presumptive evidence in favor of thinking and organizing power. This practice is in thorough accord with the known psychology of retention. Retention of large masses of factual knowledge depends quite as much on thinking and organizing ability as thinking depends on facts to think with.²³

The following graphs were based on about one-third of the answer papers returned to the office of the Inquiry. Those used were selected on no other basis than the accuracy with which the instructions were followed. It may be that these present the teaching in a somewhat too flattering light, for it is reasonable to assume that the teacher or administrator who grasps instructions and follows them intelligently is likely to carry over his efficiency into his teaching.

Graph 6 is interesting rather than instructive. A

GRAPH 6



decade ago Professor E. L. Thorndike called attention to the fact that girls generally succeed less well than boys in the study of history.²⁰ The test only supports this judgment, and shows that, while boys succeed better than girls in unmixed schools, in mixed schools the boys lift the level of the class to a point between the success of the sexes working separately. A woman teacher explained this by saying that history now contains so little that interests women, while a dyspeptic misogynist replied that it is because the boys in high school more often have men teachers than the girls do, and so have a better opportunity to study effectively.

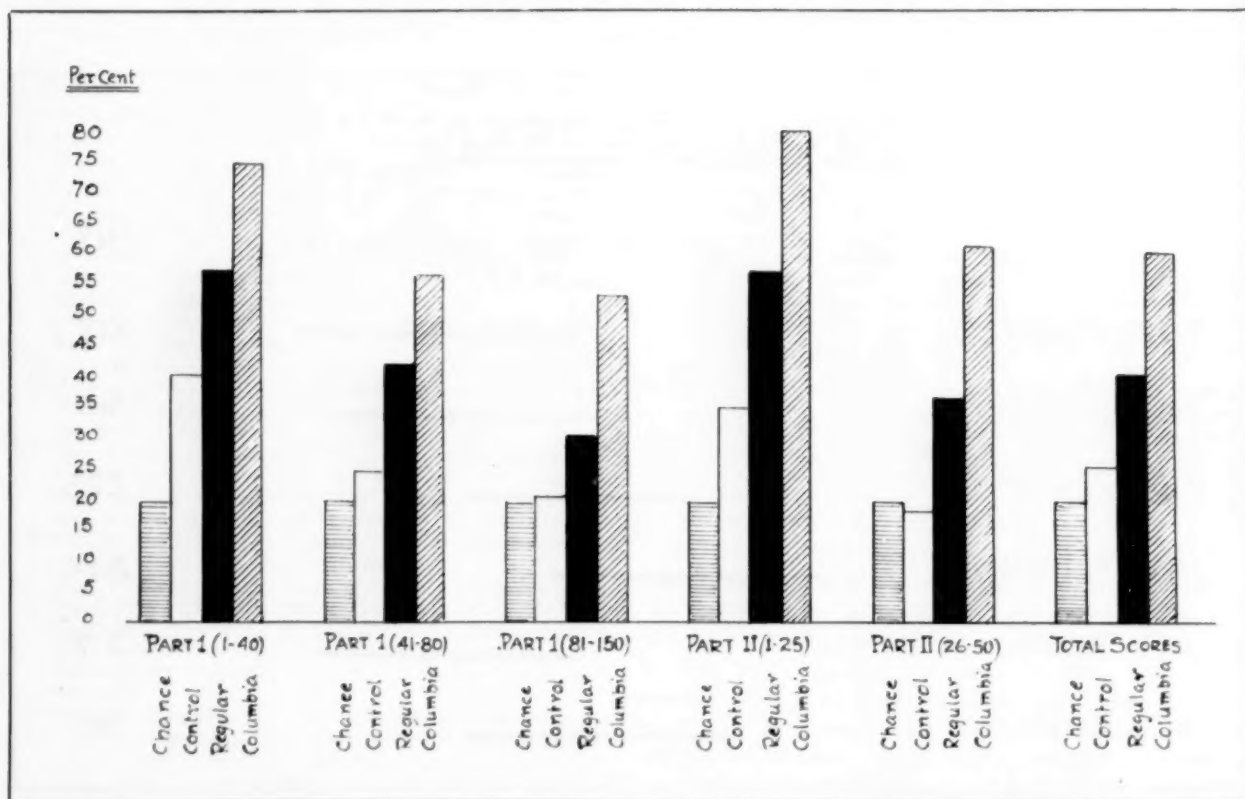
Graph 7 is an effort to show the comparative success in thirty-six schools of the control group, the regulars, and a group of university students in each of the five sections of questions and in the test as a whole. At the left of each group of upright lines is one line marked "chance." The length of this line is determined by the fact that in blocks with five completions each, the pupils may be expected to answer one-fifth of the questions correctly, even though they know nothing about the subject-matter. It will be observed that the control group in the case of Part II, Questions 26-50, fell a little below "chance." This may be explained by the fact that some pupils did not try some of the questions at all. It is surprising, however, that both in this section and in Part I, Section 3, the control group shows almost no effect of history

and civics teaching in the earlier grades of elementary and high school.

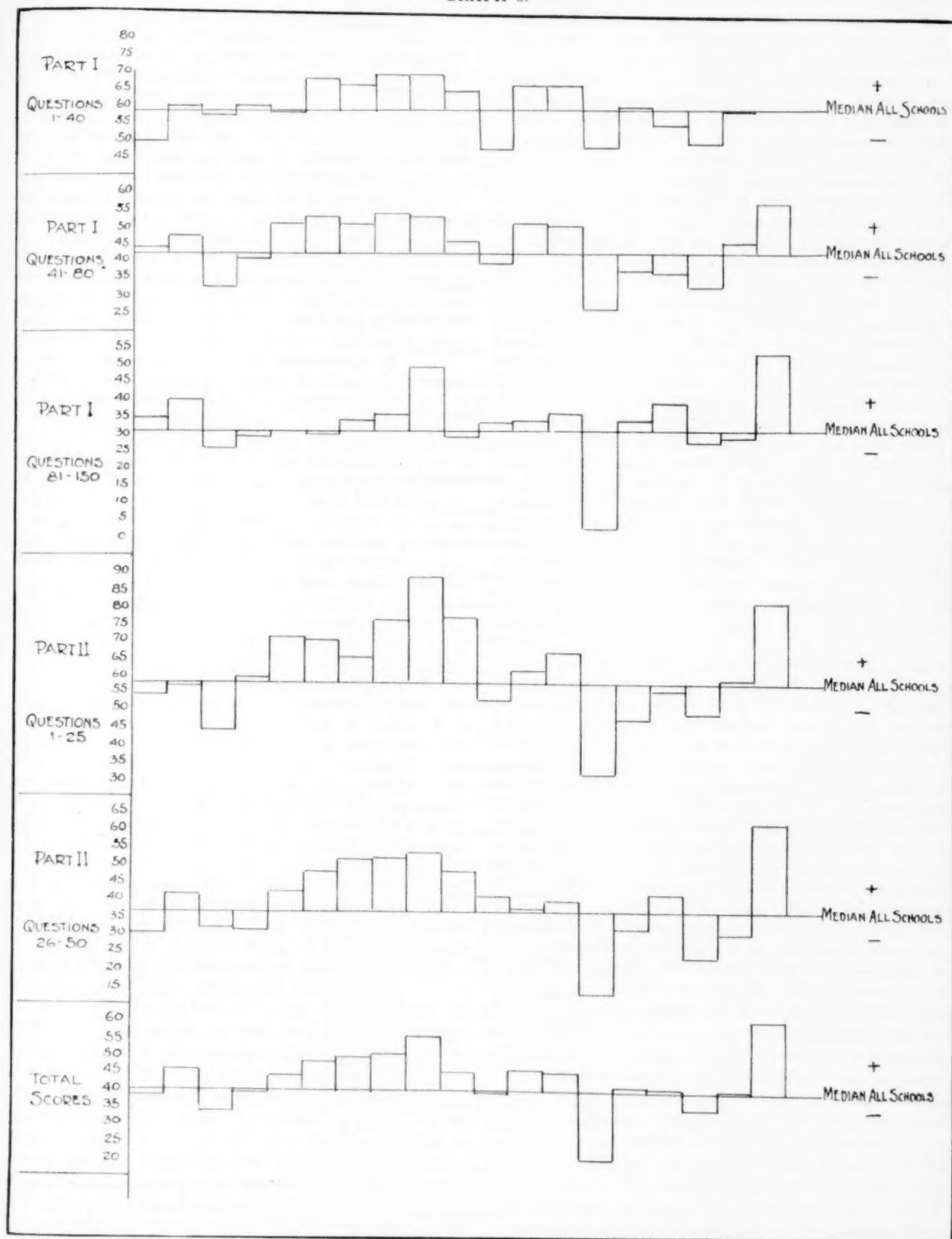
Assuming that the pupils made an equal effort to answer all of the sections of Part I, which is not the case, partly because of the length of the paper, it would seem that as the questions pass from the old-line detailed facts to the modern economic and social history, the success of the teaching decreases pretty regularly. In the case of the university students, as well as in that of the high school pupils, there is a marked falling off in both Section 2 and Section 3 of Part I. The newer type of civics, Part II, questions 26-50, seems also to test both high school and university teaching more severely than the old-fashioned and possibly easier type of civics.

Graph 8 is based on the returns from eighteen schools, representing six States, and those from the group of university students. The eighteen best sets of returns were selected, in order to keep the graph as simple as possible. The graph is probably self-explanatory. The success of each school in each section of the test is shown by the distance of its line above or below the median which is indicated for each block of questions. The ninth unit from the left of the graph represents a large commercial high school, which has evidently been teaching history with unusual success. It may be interesting to add the fact that the papers from this school were handled with exceptional promptness and accuracy by the head of

GRAPH 7.



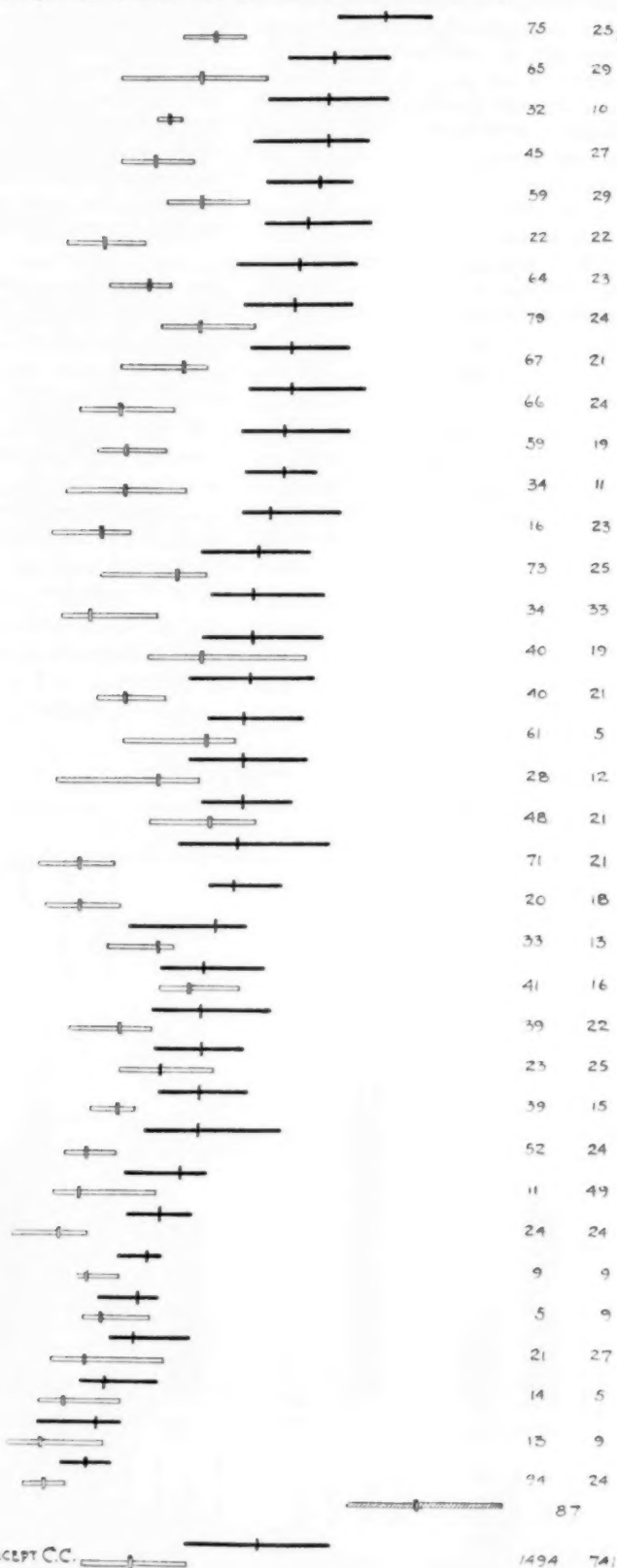
GRAPH 8.



GRAPH 9.

TOTAL SCORES

Score → 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140



the department, who is well known to members of the committee to be reliable in the matter of supervision. The success of this school shows what is possible, and therefore sets up a challenge to the other schools; and in the case of old-line civics it challenges even the group of university students, who appear at the extreme right side of the graph. It is rather distressing to note the great inequality even among these selected schools. In the case of unit 11, counting from the left, some explanation of failure has been furnished. It is apparent that the statement, "I have completed the course in American history and civics," means practically nothing, unless it is accompanied by additional information as to the school in which the work is done and the teacher under whom it is done. The answers in Section 3, Part I, from nearly all of the schools are weak enough to show that social and economic history is not being given much emphasis. From all points of view, the civics seems to make a better showing than the history.

Graph 9 is designed to show the comparative success of the control and regular groups in the test as a whole in thirty-six schools. The control groups are represented by the open lines to the left, and the regulars by the black lines, the two sets of pupils from the same school being together, the control slightly below the regulars. The third line from the bottom represents the group of university students, and the last two lines (one control and one regular) represent the success of all of the schools taken together. The distance of a line from the left margin indicates comparative success; the further the line is to the right the higher the marks represented by it. The commercial high school mentioned under Graph 8 is at the top of the page. The length of the lines indicates diversity of answers within the group, the long lines showing slight homogeneity among the pupils examined. The median point is indicated in each line. It will be observed that in some cases the lines for control and regular groups overlap to such an extent that the inference is probably justified that but little is being accomplished in this particular course in the schools represented. On the other hand, there is wide space between the groups of the same schools in many cases. The reader will bear in mind the conditions under which the test was conducted, and therefore guard against a too pessimistic inference here. The wide diversity between the schools at the top of the list and those at the bottom again indicates the wide latitude in any definition of what a course in American history and civics means.

Other graphs similar to Graph 9 were drawn to show the comparative success of the several groups in each school in each section of questions. It seems, however, that the main inferences to be drawn from them may be summed up in a few sentences for the purposes now in hand. In Part I, Section 1, the control group was at least equal to the regulars in three schools, indicating that in the old-line history the pupils advanced but little in this particular type of history beyond the training given them in grades 7-8. This may be the result of poor teaching in the

high school, excellent teaching in the grades, or the fact that the teachers in these schools are laying their stress elsewhere than on the old-line history. The phenomenon does not appear in the best schools, where the pupils made the largest success with other types of history. In Section 2 of this part the lines show exceptional diversity of success among the pupils in a single class, indicating that this type of history may not have settled to definiteness and concreteness as yet. This is true for this group of questions of nearly all of the schools represented. In two of the schools the control group was better than the regulars, and in two others the two groups were equal, showing in four schools that the success of the instruction in this course in this type of history is questionable. In only three schools were the groups clearly enough separated to show marked accomplishment. In Section 3, economic and social history, two-thirds of the schools show marked accomplishment, the distance between the control groups and the regulars being wide. All but one of the schools which make up the two-thirds are among the institutions which made the best showing in a test as a whole. It does seem, therefore, as if a good many schools are teaching economic and social history with a good deal of success. It may also show that the reason for less success on the part of the pupils in the other sections of history questions is to some extent explainable by the fact that the teacher is stressing the economic and social history. It is a hopeful sign if this is true. If the old-line history is to be taught, it probably should be handled in the grades, where the pupils are not ready for the social and economic history. If the former is taken care of below, a proper grading will take care of the latter above, where it may more properly belong.

In the old-line civics, Part II, Section 1, the control overlapped the regulars in a number of the less successful schools, and in one school the control made a definitely better showing than the regular group. This may be due to exceptionally effective teaching in community civics or poor teaching in the advanced course. In the upper half of the schools—the half which made the best general showing—the control line overlapped with the regulars in only one school, and in most of the others the two lines were widely separated. In Part II, Section 2, the more advanced type of civics, approximately the same general conditions prevailed, calling for no particular comment.

A large number of elements tend to weaken confidence in any inferences from the test. There was no experience with testing on a large scale; the work was done in great haste; the schools administered the writing of the answers without sufficient correspondence about methods; no knowledge was available which would separate pupils who had had certain types of previous preparation from those who had not; the total number of schools represented in the final computations was so small that it could hardly be said to be thoroughly representative; the paper was so long that pupils did not make as good a showing in some sections of questions as they might other-

wise have done. For these and other reasons, no information is given about particular schools, and for the same reasons no one should feel justified in forming anything like final judgments about the present teaching of history.

On the other hand, the careful reader can get from the graphs and the comment on them food for serious thought; and each such careful reader will find, through painstaking study of the graphs, additional hints which have not presented themselves to the present writer. The success of history teaching will be promoted if such readers will summarize their reactions and comments on the whole matter for future publication in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

As a check on the general reliability of the test, Mr. Edward P. Smith, State Inspector of History for New York, was asked to compare the standing of the schools which took the test in New York with their standing in the State examinations, conducted under the authority of the Regents. He studied the

returns in detail, and replied as follows: "The only conclusion that I can draw is a general one that those schools which did well on the test seem also to have done well in the Regents examinations, and those schools which did poorly on the test also did poorly in most cases in the Regents. This result might be expected, and I am inclined to think it is a fair conclusion from the figures." This inference is also made something less than completely satisfactory by reason of the fact that one of the New York State schools was not taking the Regents examinations, and in others only a small number of pupils took them, the antecedents of these pupils being somewhat peculiar, and thus lessening their importance as representatives of the work of the schools.

On the whole, confidence in standardized testing is strengthened by experience with this one, but it is certain that testing on a large scale is not a thing to be lightly attempted or to be undertaken without ample time and money.

VIII. General Impressions.

By way of summary, twelve general impressions were printed and distributed to several hundred correspondents in January and February. They were also submitted for discussion at conventions of teachers, professors, and school administrators throughout the country. No dissenting opinion was discovered further than is indicated in the paragraphs which are appended to the statement of the impressions which follow:

1. Ancient History as a separate course seems to be receding in popularity.
2. The tendency to stress recent history seems to be weakening such popularity as Medieval History formerly had.
3. English History as a separate subject seems to be losing ground.
4. The one-year course in World History, while popular in some quarters, does not seem as yet to have made much headway.
5. American History tends to move from the last year of the high school to the next earlier year—the Eleventh Grade.
6. There is a tendency to put into the Twelfth Grade a course in current problems under some such title as Modern Problems or Problems of Democracy or Social Problems.
7. New York and Maryland have recently set up, for the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Grades, a three-year course in history; and correspondence with trained history teachers shows that such an arrangement is not without widespread support.
8. There seems to be a tendency to put into the Ninth Grade one or more of the new civics courses.
9. There is considerable interest among school administrators in a Junior High School course made up of a combination of materials taken

from geography, government, history, and industrial and social conditions.

10. The tendency to give a large amount of time to the socialized discussion of current events seems to be growing.
11. The teaching of government seems to be standing still, if not actually receding, under the pressure for a rather indefinite discussion of economic and social problems.
12. The training of teachers for the social studies, separately or as a group, is clearly in sad need of attention.

There is no doubt that ancient, medieval, and English history, as separate courses, tend to disappear from the high school curriculum. Much of their content is being incorporated in the grade 10 course in general history, which lays most of its stress on the modern period, or in some other arrangement of European history, such as the New York curriculum mentioned below. There are almost as many proposals for the arrangement of the European history course as there are educational reformers, but most of them tend to cut it to not more than three semesters.

Difference of opinion exists as to the present progress of the movement to provide a one-year general survey of history. The statistics collected through questionnaires show a 200 per cent. increase since 1914 in the schools offering the course. Several correspondents believe that this is much too conservative an estimate. They believe that all of the facts would show five times as large an increase. Their argument is that the weaker schools are turning to this course; that these schools would be less likely to answer the questionnaires promptly, and that, therefore, the returns represent a small proportion of the real offerings of the course. It is likely that there is some truth in this criticism of the figures.

As to the weakness of the course, which is almost universally condemned by professors of history, there is some possibility that we are betrayed into confusion by the use of unclear names of courses. Correspondents have criticised the effort to differentiate between courses in "modern history," "medieval and modern," and "general history." They say these are all one. Yet the Committee of Seven prescribed a course under the title "medieval and modern" and proscribed the "general" history course. It is not possible to determine the strength of the movement for any particular arrangement of this non-American history. It does seem to be true, however, that as leadership in the making of curricula passes from the Committee of Seven to the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies, the amount of history other than that of the United States tends to decrease. Risking the danger of leaving no clear impression, it must be added that the amount of non-American history recommended by the Committee of Seven and the amount actually taken by the average pupil under that recommendation are two entirely different things. It may be that the pupil who most needed to study European history did so only as he was required to, and that this requirement was generally almost nil.

As non-American history gravitates to grade 10, so American history moves to grade 11 from grade 12. The Committee of Seven sought to place this course, with civil government included, where it would reach the pupil at his greatest maturity. It was thought that with this arrangement, whatever history the pupil had studied would be brought to bear on the study of our own country and the organization of our own society. As the feeling has developed that the organization of society should not be taught through history, but through an analysis of modern problems, the tendency has been to push the American history back in order to make room for such analysis.

It is particularly difficult to discuss the proposed grade 12 course. There is no doubt about the strength of the desire to train pupils to face the dangers which come with universal literacy, universal suffrage, an undeveloped press, and almost unlimited material prosperity. The desire to give this training is running far ahead of the facilities for giving it effectively. Some correspondents believe that the statistics show a desire not necessarily for a definite course in "Problems of Democracy," but rather for the teaching of modern problems and the experience and scientific principles which may guide us in our attack on these problems. Some of them say that the history courses furnish this training; others say that the way out is through courses in economics, civics (government), and sociology. The discussions seem to indicate that one must take with a little salt the apparent disposition to fly to the "Problems of Democracy" course. It may be that school administrators have turned to it because the scholars who might have provided more vital courses in history and the other social studies did not do their duty

as leaders either in outlining courses or in the training of teachers.

One of the serious weaknesses in the teaching of social studies in colleges, as well as in high schools, grows out of the fact that classes are not homogeneous as to the previous preparation of the pupils. A consequence of this is that all courses tend to be elementary, for both professors and teachers grade their instruction down to the weaker members of their classes. A class in American history which is composed of some members who have had no previous training in any social study and of others who have had from one to three units of such training, is likely to be instructed as if it were composed wholly of members without previous training. Among other consequences of this situation is a disposition on the part of pupils to try to "finish" a course and forget it. Why should they carry anything over to a succeeding course if it is not used in the second course?

The New York State course of study seeks to correct this weakness through a curriculum in history for grades 10-12. Three courses are offered, as follows:

History A, Grade 10, European History to 1789.

History B, Grade 11, European History since 1789.

History C, Grade 12, American History since 1789.

Mr. E. P. Smith, State Inspector of History, speaks of the course as "synthetic history." It is a three-year sequence in which is included the elements of economic, social, and political organization. American colonial history is included in the grade 10 course; civics in grade 12. It is assumed that economic and social facts and principles will be discussed where they naturally come in historical evolution. Mr. Geo. J. Jones, who directs the social studies in Washington, D. C., believes that the only way to vitalize the history in the high school course is to include in it the problems of organized society. The Maryland course of study is similar to that of New York, and one finds history teachers in all parts of the country who believe that some such arrangement is a practicable one.

One of the obstacles to it is the fear that school administrators cannot find room for one unit of social studies in each of these three grades. But school administrators are saying that the social studies should be "the core of the curriculum." Surely the core should run through from one end to the other. A committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals has reported²⁷ that social studies, other than history, should occupy the time of one-half a unit in each grade of the junior and senior high school. This means two units in the four-year high school. No one denies that American history should have one unit, and it is difficult to picture the type of mind which, in this age of world thought, does not accord one unit in the high school to the study of history other than that of the United States. This means four units in the four-year high school or three in grades 10-12. Consequently, the question at issue is: Shall these three units be arranged in a connected course in which the instruction of each

year will rest squarely on the work of previous years, or shall each course be a separate unit in itself for any pupil to elect or not as circumstances prompt him?

It has been said above that ancient history tends to disappear as a separate course. It is apparent from the statistics that this tendency moves slowly. The college entrance requirements, which members of the Committee of Seven considered one of the most serious obstacles to a wise organization of the social studies, still hold this course in its place in a large number of schools of the more conservative type. Not a single recent proposal in this field includes a separate course in ancient history among its recommendations. Grade 9 is organized as a finishing course rather than a beginning one, for the reason that so many pupils leave school on its completion. In schools which have not moved rapidly toward the junior high school (grades 7-9) arrangement, the social studies in grade 9 are likely to be offered in the form of a year of community civics, or a half year of this and a half year of a three-semester course in European history.

The movement in the plastic junior high school is difficult to estimate. School administrators, somewhat nervous about their obligations to find suitable material for it, and but little guided by specialists in the several social studies, very generally are turning to the "general social science" course, which has been described above in the words of Mr. Glass. The most ambitious proposals in this direction have been fully discussed by Professor Gambrill,²⁸ and need not be further analyzed here. There is little doubt, however, that if the junior high school movement continues in its present line of march, there will be little history taught in grades 7-9. Such new courses of study as that of New Jersey, as reported in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for May this year, seem to offer no history other than American, and but little more than one unit of that. Society is to be studied in cross-section analysis rather than in evolution, and civics is to take the place of history—civics with a very broad definition.

The cross-section method expresses itself in all the social studies in the form of a rapidly growing emphasis on current events and a rather emotional discussion of them. They are used not only for illustrative purposes, as they have always been to some extent, but one-fifth of the time assigned to a history course, for example, is likely to be taken away and devoted to rather impressionistic discussion of newspaper information which is wholly unrelated to the subject-matter of the course, occupying the remaining four-fifths of the time. Some teachers report that this tendency is largely promoted by advertising campaigns to sell the magazines which are most nearly like the newspapers. One of these is reported in the questionnaire as in use in one-third of the schools of the country, another in one-fifth, and several others are largely used.

Mr. H. H. Moore²⁹ has reported some statistics on

the study of current events. He finds a rapid and increasing interest in this type of teaching, and presents a table in which is shown the character of the topics discussed. Some nine thousand items fall into the following classification:

| | |
|--|-------|
| International politics..... | 4,095 |
| Domestic politics..... | 1,341 |
| Local politics (included in domestic)..... | 57 |
| Economics | 1,896 |
| Sociology | 762 |
| Miscellaneous (science, etc.) | 953 |

Under economics, about a third of the topics are classified as "economic industrial conditions." On these Mr. Moore was kind enough to supply the following comment from the statistician who tabulated his returns:

"If I remember correctly, the discussion of economic conditions of life in an industrial environment included such topics as housing, sanitation, real wages, industrial abuses, etc. It was ordinarily found on those returns which exhibited a tendency to answer in general rather than in specific terms, to be vague instead of precise, and there seemed no way of tabulating such answers as to get anything definite out of them."

One may easily imagine that much of the time of the pupils was spent in the kind of pathological comment which inspired a professor of sociology to protest against "mere forensic exchange of ignorant opinion," if opinion it may be called.

Among school administrators the need of more serious and systematic instruction in economics is fully appreciated, as has been shown in the statistics of opinion to be found above (p. 260). It may be doubted whether the administrators have had the time to think out this need to its elements and to the organization of instruction needed to meet it; but that is another story. That they are awake to the need is probably certain.

Among the General Impressions distributed for discussion, No. 11 has met with some criticism. This doubt grows out of the fact that twenty-eight States have enacted laws requiring the study of the Federal Constitution, and the further fact that some teachers now think that they see a swing away from the discussion of social problems to more serious instruction in political principles. As an offset to this opinion, attention may be recalled to the following facts: Where the combination "American History and Civics" for grade 11 or 12 used to be in terms of three parts of history and two parts of civics—the latter made up mainly of government—it is now reported that only one-fifth of the time is likely to be given to civics, and that much of this is spent in a discussion of problems, with but little stress on the political and legal organization set up with a view to the administration of these problems; secondly, in discussing the courses in problems of democracy of grade 12, most correspondents seem to think in terms of sociology or social economics, rather than in those of political organization; thirdly, the graduates from courses in community civics in grade 8 or 9 show little resulting understanding of current constructive political thought, but rather an emotional regret that things are as bad as they are.

TEACHER TRAINING.

In the second printed summary distributed for discussion the following statement was included: "The training and selection of teachers—the fundamental and only permanently hopeful consideration—is neglected on all sides, and faithful teachers are being asked to do what they know they are not prepared for, and must therefore fail to do." In the responses there was little comment on it except an almost universal "Amen." In the general correspondence such statements as the following are common:

In general, I am struck with the prodigious importance we attach to this or that course, assuming that it has a sort of innate virtue, or ability to propel itself, once the author has wound it up and the teacher has set it going. As I grow older my conviction deepens that the teacher is the thing, and that a course under almost any name, in the hands of an equipped teacher, will be successful.... Some teachers are likely to assume that the trouble is with the course when perhaps it lies with themselves.

A scattered few, among hundreds, said that here or there one would find effective teacher training in the social studies, but inquiry generally dissolved any hope that had been aroused. There are a number of places where history teachers are being well trained to teach history as a special subject, differentiated from its allies and from the synthetic courses, such as those in the New York State sequence; but the places where teachers of the social studies are being prepared are so rare as to constitute only the exceptions that prove the rule.

An examination of the practice in teacher training institutions was not made a part of The History Curricula Inquiry, but the situation was studied with some thoroughness in 1920.³⁰ It was found that professors of education gave too little attention to securing the co-operation of professors of subject-matter. The former replied that it was impossible to interest the latter, who were so busy equipping prospective graduate students that they were unwilling to offer courses suitable for the prospective secondary school teacher. The professors of subjects, meeting this criticism, replied that the school of education asked them to give such superficial courses that they could not comply and at the same time maintain their self-respect. The statements just made are rather exceptionally abrupt, but the feeling underlying them, as every one knows, is making co-operation between academic professors and professors of education almost impossible. Almost as little co-operation was observable among professors of economics, history, political science, and sociology. In a few universities curricula have now been developed out of the elements of history and the other social studies, and so organized that the prospective teacher can, if he will, equip himself by devoting to the task something like a third of the one hundred and twenty units required for graduation with the bachelor's degree.

The universities are but little encouraged to equip teachers of the social studies when it is likely that the teacher will be assigned to other work. Under the blanket certificate, still so common, a candidate is licensed to teach in high schools—to teach at large and any subject. Even when he is licensed in a

subject, he is as likely as not to be assigned to some other field. These facts are now so well known that one hesitates to repeat them, yet persons who are not in education are scarcely ready to believe that such improvident inefficiency can actually be the practice. A pupil is doubtless far more rapidly advanced toward good citizenship through studying algebra under a teacher training to teach that subject than through studying social studies under him if he is not trained to teach those studies. Not a few correspondents expressed the belief that the present methods of assigning teachers to the social studies are likely to discredit the whole movement to secure recognition for these subjects. Many school administrators are dissatisfied with the results obtained from the teaching of history, and disposed to substitute for it courses under other names. It may be that if they would once experiment with history in the hands of well-trained teachers, they would find it a really effective implement of education.

Nothing that is said in this report can justly be interpreted as a reflection on the teacher himself. Hundreds of excellent teachers are making of history all that the subject is capable of being. No fault can justly be found with a teacher who is handling the subject without suitable preparation. Being unprepared, he does not know the subject well enough to appreciate his own lack of insight, and therefore does not know that he is really not teaching the subject. But one is in danger of becoming overheated on this subject. The reader is therefore respectfully referred to the bulletin cited above.

¹ "The Study of History in the Schools," Report of the Committee of Seven. Macmillan, 1899, p. v.

² *Ibid.*, p. 148.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 3-4.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 16-19.

⁵ "The Study of History in the Schools," Report of the Committee of Five. Macmillan, 1911, pp. 2-4.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 64.

⁷ Educational Review, 1913, p. 236.

⁸ Bulletin 41, 1913, Bureau of Education, "Reorganization of Secondary Education," p. 8.

⁹ Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, p. 117.

¹⁰ Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education, "Social Studies in Secondary Education."

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-10.

¹² Bulletin 23, 1915, Bureau of Education, "Community Civics."

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

¹⁴ The study was made under a grant from the Commonwealth Fund, and will appear as "Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades 5-6," a supplementary monograph with the School Review, University of Chicago Press.

¹⁵ THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, December, 1922, p. 338.

¹⁶ Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education, pp. 43-44.

¹⁷ Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 17.

¹⁸ Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education, pp. 53-56.

¹⁹ "Social Studies in Secondary Schools," University Press, 1922, p. 18.

²⁰ American Political Science Review, February, 1922, pp. 116-117.

²¹ THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, December, 1923, pp. 349-350.

²² Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, p. 120.

²⁴ Bulletin 13, 1923, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois. "The Status of Social Science," etc.

²⁵ "Measurement of Law School Work," Ben D. Wood, Reprint, Columbia Law Review, Vol. xxiv, No. 3, p. 6.

²⁶ "Educational Psychology," Vol. III, E. L. Thorndike, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1914, p. 184.

²⁷ School Review, April, 1920, p. 295.

²⁸ THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, December-February, 1923-1924.

²⁹ Bulletin 45, 1922, Bureau of Education, p. 19.

³⁰ Bulletin 3, 1922, Bureau of Education.

³¹ The graphs based on questionnaires were prepared under the direction of Mr. J. R. Clark, of Lincoln School, Teachers College.

³² The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education, published by the Mathematical Association of America, Inc. 1923, p. 47.

³³ Mr. Tryon's statement that one-third of the schools follow the Committee of Seven refers not to single courses, but to whole programs of study.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR J. M. GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Recent High-School Textbooks on Economics

Many professional economists believe that the effort to teach economic theory to high-school students is misdirected. If college students experience great difficulty in understanding economic theory, what possible chance do high school students have? From this point of view there are real grounds for urging that economic theory be omitted from the high school curriculum. However, as only a small percentage of high school students go on to college, there seems no justification in omitting economics entirely from the high school course.

What the high-school course should be is a much disputed point. The older textbooks for schools attempted to give the essentials of economic theory, but in a much simplified manner. In recent years very definite changes have occurred in the type of high-school textbooks. It is more practical in that it gives a larger space to the description of economic organization as it is. Some of the very recent textbooks have been influenced by the close association that exists in many schools between training in citizenship and courses in economics. For example *The Essentials of Economics*, by Charles W. Heathcote (Richard G. Badger, Boston, 1923; 266 pp.) definitely takes the position that the motive is "to stimulate a higher regard, larger patriotism, more responsible zeal, an unselfish service, for our nation and its institutions." Many students of economics will feel that such a purpose is a worthy one in itself, yet from a scientific point of view it is dangerous. Who is to decide what the elements are which contribute to a larger patriotism? This book gives a minimum space to the discussion of the fundamental principles and makes no complete effort to explain why "value" and "price" are what they are, about four pages being given to this difficult subject and a part of that taken up with the discussion of prices abroad. The chapter closes with the quotations of foreign exchange rates, without any effort to explain the relation existing between international prices and foreign exchange rates. In short, the book while well written and attractively printed, is more a description of some of the sociological and economic institutions that have developed in America than a treatise on the principles of economics.

Professor Fred Roger Fairchild of Yale University, in his *Essentials of Economics* (American Book Company, New York, 1923; 543 pp.), has attempted with considerable success a combination of discussion of theory and a description of industrial institutions. Sixty-seven pages are given to a discussion of value and prices. He has included a chapter on "The Use of Schedules, Diagrams and Graphs." The effort to interest the elementary student in the simple rules of graphing and measurement is becoming increasingly obvious, and is surely a step in the right direction. The work seems to be carefully done and well-adapted to the high school student. Professor Fairchild has made a strong effort to explain value and price so that it can be understood by the average high school student, making the presentation as simple as possible and resorting to a generous use of graphs and curves. Only the test of experience can show whether he has succeeded in this difficult task. For some reason not understood by the

reviewer the author follows his discussion of market prices by a chapter on the cost of production and supply. Surely the cost of production is a very important factor in explaining value.

T. R. Williamson in his *Introduction to Economics* (D. C. Heath & Co., New York, 1923; 538 pp.) takes the historical approach. The book is both an economic history of the United States and a treatise on elementary principles of economics. In the later pages he discusses some of the important aspects of our present day development: conservation of natural resources, public regulation of monopolies, the tariff and industrial relations, socialism and co-operation. There is a certain concreteness about his discussion of the principles of economics which is to be commended. In his explanation of the equilibrium of demand and supply forces, he makes use of concrete demand and supply schedules. This approach to the explanation of prices is not new, but has usually been limited to more advanced textbooks. His discussion of the distribution of income is also replete with concrete illustrations from life. The book is well illustrated which adds much to its interest. Mr. Williamson has written a companion volume entitled *Readings in Economics*, which follows practically the same outline as that followed in his *Introduction*. The idea of such a companion volume is excellent, because of the broadening influence upon the students of reading different points of view by different authors. The selections are well chosen and range all the way from Adam Smith down through the Australian School to the Neo-classicalists. Some of the readings on theory are likely to be too difficult for high school students, but there are also many selections chosen from government publications of a more concrete nature.

Ely and Wicker's *Elementary Principles of Economics* is a new edition of a book that has been very widely used in schools. (Macmillan Co., New York, 1923; 532 pp.) In the latest revision the effort has been made to bring in some concrete material regarding the effect of the war upon economic life, both war and post-war experiences being introduced. In preparing the final revision the authors have incorporated many suggestions received from high school teachers. This volume is one of the best of the older type of high-school texts in economics, which follows the same general outline as that used in college texts, but seeks to soften the blow by making the treatment as simple as possible. If the explanations are sound, can they be made simple? Students should find economics most fascinating, but for some reason they do not. Perhaps we need an entirely new approach. What seems to be needed is, not more, but different, high-school texts in economics.

WILLIAM E. WELD.

Columbia College.

GEOGRAPHY AND MAPS

The Oxford University Press is publishing a useful little series called "The World Manuals" (1922-23). *The World About Us* (94 pp., \$1.00) is a short study of the influence of geographical environment by a scholarly British geographer, O. J. R. Howarth. Illustrations are given to show how physical environment helps to explain facts dealt

with in economics, sociology, political science, and history. Dr. H. J. Fleure, Professor of Geography and Anthropology at the University College of Wales, has prepared for the same series a helpful summary on *The Peoples of Europe*. This volume includes chapters sketching some phases of the evolution of European life before the Industrial Revolution and "aspects of modern Europe." There is a bibliographical note.—S.

A series of *Practical Map Exercises* on a unique plan has been prepared by Miss Mildred C. Bishop and Mr. Edward K. Robinson and published by Ginn & Co. (Boston, 1920-23; each, 56 cents.) The series includes pamphlets on "Ancient History," "Medieval and Modern Europe," "European History to 1714," "European History Since 1714," and "American History." In each case there is a full page outline map, a syllabus of information, specific assignments for the map work, and a supply of thin paper tracing sheets to insure accuracy in drawing. Teachers who have difficulties with the problems of map work would do well to investigate this series.

Except on the principle that the fewer the number of maps that he has to consult, the better for the student of history, *Hammond's Ready Reference Historical Atlas* (C. S. Hammond & Co., New York, 1924; 32 pp., paper) appears to have little to commend it. As a "new series of 29 plates containing 67 colored maps with a new ready reference index" the general reader may like its cheapness in price, its comparative handiness in size, its lightness of weight and its paucity of content, even if he cares less about the material supplied and the order of its presentation. In the sense that such a combination has never appeared before, the series is "new." The student certainly will detect no evidence of appealing novelty in the selection or in the data. Nor will he approve an assortment of maps which as a rule lacks the suggestion of either logical or chronological sequence.

WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD.

Children of Many Lands (128 pp.) and *Homes Far Away* (144 pp.) are Books I and II of a series on "Human Geography by Grades" by James Fairgrieve and Ernest Young. The authors say that these first two books are intended for the third grade, but they are probably better suited to the fourth grade, where world geography is usually taught. The books are well written in story form and in language suited to children, and the relation of man to his physical environment is clearly shown. If the succeeding volumes in the series are as well written and illustrated as the first two, they will make a valuable addition to our list of geographical readers. (D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1923.)—S.

The well-known and widely-used "Geographical Readers" of Frank G. Carpenter are beginning to appear in a new edition, in preparation for which the author is said to have traveled more than 150,000 miles taking notes and photographs. The *Asia* follows the plan of a "personally conducted tour" successfully used in the earlier editions. The stories and descriptions are interesting as well as instructive, and accompanied by numerous clear pictures. (American Book Co., New York, 1923; 479 pp.)

In *The Sulu Archipelago and Its People* Dr. S. Y. Orosa, a hospital superintendent and U. S. quarantine officer in Sulu, has written for children an illustrated account of the land, the long feud with Spain, American administration, the sultanate, the inhabitants and their customs, education. (World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y., 1923; 134 pp.; \$1.20.)

G. W. Hoke's *Lands and Life, Book One, Russia and the Old East* (Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1924, 364 pp.) is a geographical reader suited to the intermediate grades and the junior high schools. It consists chiefly of a series of selections from reliable authors who were eye-witnesses of the things which they describe. The readings provide a rich store of fresh material, at once authoritative and well written, on Russia, China, Japan, India, and the Near East. The readings on China, for instance, include selections from such reliable authorities as Edward A. Ross, Chester Holcombe, and F. H. King. There is an abundance of human interest and entertaining episodes not found in many of our so-called geographical readers. The editor's historical sketches are not always so

successful and the brief account of the Soviet regime in Russia would satisfy the most extreme Bolshevik haters.—S.

Book Notes

Professor William Stearns Davis, in his *Life on a Medieval Barony* (Harper & Brothers, New York and London, 1923, xvi, 414 pp., \$3.50), has again attempted the "accurate popularization" of history. It is not a textbook, but an effort at a realistic portrayal in readable form of feudal times. The narrative (for there is a slender story thread) centers around the imaginary barony of St. Aliquis "not far from Burgundy, Champagne and Blois," while the year 1220 A. D. is chosen as representing the climax of feudalism in northeastern France. Attention is directed first to the castle itself, its construction, inhabitants and their daily life (ch. I-XV); then to the villages of the peasants (ch. XVI-XVIII), the nearby monastery (ch. XIX-XX), and the "good town of Pontdebois" with its fairs, its guilds, its bishop and his cathedral (ch. XXI-XXIV). A method so definite in time and place gives an opportunity for concrete description. Yet Mr. Davis does not ignore the shifting character of feudal society; by frequent reference to events before and after the year 1220 he succeeds to a considerable extent in making his picture complete though there is perhaps a tendency to read into one period and locality too many of the widely diverse social phenomena called "medieval." The Middle Ages are not idealized, for, while the upper classes with their wars and tournaments naturally receive much consideration, the darker side is not neglected. We read of tortures, of cruel and unusual punishments, of squalor, ignorance and vice. The lazy and lustful monk appears along with the pious recluse. Wherever possible greater effect is added by quotation from contemporary writers. Of course a work of this sort must often be positive where there is room for difference of opinion and errors of fact are bound to occur, yet there seems to be a high degree of accuracy. One extraordinary mistake is the inclusion of the legend of the Year 1000. The general reader (a rare specimen in America) will find it interesting though its chief use will

For Sturdy Americanism WOODBURN & MORAN'S THE AMERICAN COMMUNITY

Inspires active and intelligent citizenship; intensely interesting and perfectly adapted to elementary courses in Civics in Grammar and Junior High Schools. Full of worth while material; exceptional pictures; practical topics for discussion.

WOODBURN & MORAN'S THE CITIZEN AND THE REPUBLIC

Hundreds of educators throughout the country attest the power of this up-to-date text to awaken an active interest on the part of advanced high school and junior college students in the problems of everyday citizenship.

BOGART'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

The standard textbook in its field. It is a clean-cut story of this country's economic struggle, told in interesting and dramatic style, from the earliest colonization of the continent to the complex industrial and commercial society of today.

Longmans, Green & Co.

New York

Chicago

Boston

doubtless be as "supplementary reading" in schools, for which purpose it is admirable, belonging to the "satisfies a long-felt want" class.—THOMAS PEARDON, Barnard College.

The Great Game of Politics, by Frank R. Kent, is a realistic, but not a muck-raking, account by a newspaper man with many years of experience as a political reporter. Part I deals with the political machine from the precinct executive to the boss, Part II with candidates and their ways, while a dozen miscellaneous but interesting subjects are treated in an Appendix. There are some interesting expressions of opinion (e. g., that woman suffrage has increased the power of the Machine) and suggestions about better government, but in the main the book is a realistic and well-informed account of actual conditions. It would be of more service in the classroom for intelligent study of civic problems than many learned treatises on the structure and theoretical machinery of government. (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, 1923; 322 pp.; \$2.50.)

From Immigrant to Inventor, by Michael Pupin, is the wonderful and fascinating autobiography of a Serbian peasant boy and herdsman who ran away to America at fifteen and after working his way on farms and in factories acquired an education and became professor of electro-mechanics at Columbia University and one of the foremost of living inventors. Under our present laws he could not have landed, being penniless, not to mention the "quota." His story is simply and engagingly told, free of technical complications in its numerous references to scien-

tific matters, full of human interest; and on every page it is evident that the author is no Philistine. The book takes rank as one of the very best of its class. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, second edition, 1923; 396 pp., \$4.00.)

The American Labor Yearbook, 1923-24, the fifth issue of this unique work of reference, which made a modest beginning in 1916, is indispensable for the study of recent labor history and related subjects. The present volume, prepared by the Labor Research Department of the Rand School of Social Science, is larger and more comprehensive than the earlier numbers, as well as better arranged and edited. Among the subjects covered are industrial and social conditions, trade union organization, labor disputes and labor politics, legislation, court decisions, civil liberties, workers' education, labor banking, co-operation in America and abroad, international relations of labor, trade unionism and labor political movements abroad; and there is a calendar of labor conventions in 1924, an international labor diary for the preceding two years, and an extended directory of unions, parties, workers' educational institutions, co-operatives, and labor papers and magazines both here and abroad. There is a good general index. (Rand School of Social Science, New York, 1924; 548 pp.; \$3.00.)

Miss Olive Thompson's *A Guide to Readings in Civic Education* appears in a new edition, revised and enlarged. Numerous titles and annotations have been added, entries have been numbered for convenience of reference, and a complete author index included. There are improvements in detail and arrangement. Three sections are devoted to works on society, government, and education; the fourth and longest, to "The Art of Civic Education,"—courses of study, methods, textbooks, etc. The annotations are in the main descriptive rather than critical. (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1924; 140 pp.; 75 cents.)

Labor's Money, by Richard Boeckel, is a timely little book giving an account of the entry of organized labor into the field of banking and investment, its significance and possible consequences. (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1923; 181 pp.; \$1.50.)

"The Cambridge Economic Handbooks," edited by J. M. Keynes, will deal with a variety of subjects with the object of assisting and stimulating study without urging "ready-made conclusions," each book being written "by one of the most distinguished of the younger economists and in a style for general reading as well as study." To this series Mr. Harold Wright contributes *Population*, dealing with a serious problem which more than one thoughtful student believes will soon become acute. The author here takes up the early population theories, Malthus, and the reaction against him, food and raw materials, coal and iron, growth of population, international population problems, the quality of population, and a chapter of summary and conclusion. Two ways of meeting the problem that threatens to arise are increasing the productivity of labor and restricting the birth rate, both of which will probably be necessary "if the world is to be a tolerable place in the years to come." Mr. Wright is not a propagandist and contents himself with a lucid exposition of the problems and possible solutions. (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1923; 180 pp.)

Professor A. L. Bishop of Yale University is the author of *Outlines of American Foreign Commerce*, which successfully attempts to develop in a simple and orderly manner a study of our foreign commerce in the light of the fundamental principles governing trade. National resources, American industries, foreign in relation to domestic trade, exports and imports, the balance of trade, transportation, marine insurance, finance, and commercial policy are among the subjects treated; and there are chapters on the promotion of American foreign trade and the promotion of foreign trade in Great Britain, Germany and France. The work has been carefully done and covers a ground not duplicated in any other volume. An excellent bibliography of 11 pages is included. (Ginn & Co., Boston, 1923. 321 pp. \$3.00.)

The Rise of the Universities, by Charles H. Haskins (Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1923; 134 pp.; \$1.50)

CLARK UNIVERSITY SUMMER SCHOOL

WORCESTER, MASS.

July 7-August 15, 1924

COURSES IN HISTORY AND ECONOMICS

Staff

William Leonard Langer, Ph. D.
Assistant Professor of History, Clark University.
Ralph Volney Harlow, Ph. D.
Assistant Professor of History, Boston University
Samuel J. Brandenburg, Ph. D.
Professor of Economics and Sociology, Clark University

Courses

History SS 14.

The History of Russia since the Accession of Alexander I., Mr. Langer

History SS 15.

The Development of the European Situation since the Treaty of Versailles. Mr. Langer.

History SS 16.

The Recent History of the United States, 1865-1923. Mr. Harlow.

History SS 17.

The American Colonies and the Revolution, 1607-1783. Mr. Harlow.

Economics SS 1.

Principles of Economics. Mr. Brandenburg.

Economics SS 2.

Economic History of the United States. Mr. Brandenburg.

An extensive program of courses in Geography. Courses also in Psychology, English, and Modern Foreign Languages.

Tuition, \$20 or \$35, according to number of courses.

Write for Catalogue

Detours

From Conventional Texts

Lands and Life, ————— **G. W. Hoke**
Russia and the Old East, Book I Price, \$1.00

Told in Story, ————— **H. J. Eckenrode**
American History, Book I Price, 90c.

Stories of South America, ————— **E. C. Brooks**
Price, 80c.

JOHNSON PUBLISHING COMPANY

Richmond, Virginia

reports the lectures delivered by him on the Colver Foundation at Brown University in 1922. In the first of the three chapters is sketched the development of the organization of thronging students and teachers at Salerno in the eleventh century and at Bologna, Paris, and Oxford in the twelfth whither the lure of the new learning was drawing them. And the reader sees the outgrown organization of the cathedral and monastery school slowly change into degree-conferring faculties and other characteristic features of the universities of today. Through the chapter on the medieval professor, we look into the university classroom and see what the motley group of boys and men studied, and how they were taught, through lecture, ordinary and extraordinary, reviews, repetitions, disputations and examinations. For his chapter on the medieval student the author has drawn from the records of the law courts, university statutes, sermons to and referring to students, and the considerable student literature, comprising manuals written for students as well as the poems and letters written by them. Vivid and very interesting glimpses these are, and this book compact of scholarship and felicitously phrased, is a distinct enrichment of our literature on education.—WAYLAND J. CHASE, Univ. of Wisconsin.

Where Our History Was Made, by John T. Faris (Silver, Burdett & Co., New York, 1923. 326 pp.), covers the period from aboriginal America to 1783 and is one of two volumes designed for elementary school instruction in the United States history from the earliest times to the present. The author does not state whether his textbook is for use in the intermediate or the primary grades. The most striking characteristic of the book is its endeavor to portray local history in different sections of the country in such a way as to teach national history while appealing to local pride. The author has assumed, rightly or not, that since it is impossible for all to visit the places where the stirring events of history occurred, that "the next best thing is to tell the stories in connection with definite localities so that readers may feel as if they really were there." Therefore

he describes Cahokia Mound in Illinois, the Great Mound in West Virginia, Doughoregan Manor in Maryland, and Gunston Hall on the Potomac, as well as places commonly known for their historic connections. The attention given the place rather than the event in many cases is such that the significance of the latter is lost in the description of its setting. The author, however, has not neglected the heroic character in American history, and stories are told of William Penn, Paul Revere, George Washington and others. Considerable "source" material is introduced into the body of the text, and such descriptions as that of the Eagle School near Philadelphia (p. 185) are interesting and worth-while. There is a conspicuous lack of the proper emphasis upon the "time element," and many and important events have been overlooked in the effort to present history in a new way.—BESSIE L. PIERCE, University of Iowa.

Following Columbus, by Superintendent William L. Nida, is a collection of stories covering American exploration and colonization and intended as a primary history. (Macmillan, New York, 1923; 284 pp.; 96 cents.) The difficult period of exploration is handled effectively; and the author succeeds in telling his stories in an entertaining style, well adapted to the interest of children. Actual test shows that with the exception of a few topics that are too complicated for the slower readers, the book can be used in the fourth grade, while the slowest pupils in the sixth grade can read the entire book with ease and with great interest. Unfortunately, the author's historical knowledge and grasp leave something to be desired. For example, he fancies that with few exceptions educated people in the day of Columbus believed the earth to be flat; he has evidently not heard of Professor Lybyer's researches on the relations of the Turks to the European trade with the East; he represents the Polos as starting on their great eastern journey "as early as the year 1300"; and gives a wrong impression of the time and purpose of the voyages of discovery begun by Prince Henry of Portugal.—O. B.

AN AMERICAN history should be more than a chronicle of past events—it should interpret the problems of the years that have gone in terms of present-day affairs, if the student is to profit from his study in training for citizenship.

HULBERT'S UNITED STATES HISTORY

is a book distinctly of this type. At every point where a significant comparison or contrast has been possible, the author has made it in most telling fashion.

Professor Hulbert's text is the result of an earnest effort to state the facts vigorously, yet without bias or prejudice. His book is so permeated by a healthy Americanism as to leave an enduring impression for good on the mind of the high school student.

Of distinct value in the class-room are the introductions beginning each chapter, the topics for discussion at the end of each section, the topical treatment of the later period, and the Biographical Sketches in the Appendix, which relieve the text of much diverting matter. For most teachers the emphasis placed by the author upon the later period of our history will be a decided advantage.

The equipment of maps and illustrations is unexcelled.

Price, \$2.00. Samples on request.

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY
Garden City New York

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE B. RICHARDS, Ph.D.

Jackson Harvey Ralston "challenges the right of the Supreme Court to act as virtual ruler of our country" in his "Labor and Law" (May *Forum*), while Senator Pepper, in the same magazine, "defends the Supreme Court and believes that it performs a necessary function as umpire," and "1924 Campaign Issues V Foreign Policy," including David Hunter Miller's "American Foreign Policy" and George Henry Payne's "Domestic Policy First," are also argued interestingly from divergent viewpoints.

"The Divati, the Lamp Festival of the Hindus," is interestingly described by Professor W. Crooke, in the December number of *Folk-Lore*.

"It can be pleaded in von Bethmann's favor that whereas he did, in the end, try to restrain Austria, France made but little effort to restrain Russia, and France must therefore share with Germany the responsibility for making the fate of Serbia a clear-cut issue between the Triple and the Dual Alliances. But if France cannot be credited with any positive step to preserve peace, she is certainly absolved from what is the most serious charge against Germany. For Sir Edward Grey said that the only escape from the impasse was to bring the Concert of Europe into action and his proposal to that end was accepted by France, Russia and Italy. It was the refusal of Germany to follow this lead, before the diplomatic situation had been overtaken by military measures, which made Great Britain finally range herself with France and Russia, prevented a compromise between the Alliances and the Entente, forced each group to maintain its position, and precipitated the war," is the conclusion reached by Professor Bernadotte E. Schmitt, in "The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente" (*American Historical Review* for April).

The March number of the *Maryland Historical Magazine* contains a very interesting article by Henry J. Berkley on "Colonial Ruins, Colonial Architecture and Brickwork of the Chesapeake Bay Section."

A very clear analysis of recent events in Washington is to be found in Charles Merz's article, "At the Bottom of the Oil Story," in the May *Century*.

K. C. McIntosh's "The Campaign of B. C. 588-81" (May *American Mercury*) is an account of the important campaign of Nebuchadnezzar against the Jews told from the point of view of modern military science.

Augustus Somerville, a Calcuttan, writes on "Prison Reform in India" in the March issue of the *Calcutta Review*. He says the prisons "are a makeshift at the best" and portray "ignorance of human nature....The average warden is expert in nothing, least of all in education and health....The responsibility for the imposition of corporal punishment should be solely in the hands of the State. In India, where this power is in the hands of the prison authorities and where the attitude towards the criminal population is distinctly belligerent, the need for control is great....Work in prisons should be made to have an educational value. Indian jails are remarkably fortunate in this respect. There are means of learning weaving, clothing, printing and various other industries and it is to the credit of our penal department that such forms of labor have been introduced. But for the majority of prisoners such skilled trades are debarred....Under existing laws and customs our courts convict and sentence with very little knowledge of the character or mentality of the man."

A series of articles on the "Political Ideas of Woodrow Wilson," by Professor Alessandro Levi, of the University of Catania, are running in the *Nuova Antologia*. In the second installment, published in the April number, Professor Levi says: "The principal defects which Mr. Wilson imputed to the Congressional Government may be reduced to four: the isolation of the executive power, the diminution of its responsibility and the general lack of interest of public opinion in the work of Congress and the semi-clandestine influence exerted by the political parties on public opinion."

News of Associations

SUMMER MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL.

The National Council for the Social Studies will offer two programs in connection with the annual convention of the National Education Association in Washington, D. C., in July of this year. One, a luncheon conference at the house of the American Association of University Women, 1634 I Street, on Wednesday, July 2, at 12.30, \$1.00 per plate. *It is important* that those who wish to attend send notice to Miss Genevieve Marsh, chairman of the committee on local arrangements, as soon as possible, for only a limited number of places can be arranged. The other conference will be at the Central High School, on Thursday, July 3, at 2 o'clock.

Exceedingly interesting programs are in preparation. These will be given in full in the official program of the National Education Association. For further information, write to Miss Genevieve Marsh, The Ontario Apartments, Washington, D. C., or to Edgar Dawson, 671 Park Avenue, New York City.

For general information, such as hotel accommodations, other interesting conferences in Washington at this time, and the plans of the National Education Association convention, write to the headquarters of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C. Programs and other important information will be mailed on request.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland had its twenty-first annual convention this year in Baltimore, on May 9 and 10, at the Hotel Emerson. The meeting was held in conjunction with that of the Maryland History Teachers, and began with an afternoon session on Friday, at which there was an audience of about eighty. Dr. Alexander C. Flick, of the State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y., made an excellent address on "How May More Adequately Trained Teachers Be Secured for the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools." He was followed by Dr. Ella Lonn, of Goucher College, whose theme was "A Course in the Methods of Teaching the Social Studies in High Schools." Dr. Lonn spoke from a practical point of view, describing her work in the classroom and in observing history lessons taught in the Baltimore high schools. The discussion was a plea for history taught through the problem-solving method, and for the introduction into the curriculum of the other social studies on an equal footing with history.

After a very pleasant social hour at the dinner table, the members met together for the evening session, when an audience of more than two hundred met and listened with great interest to addresses by the President, Mr. Fayette E. Moyer, and by Dr. Charles A. Beard, of New York. The topics were, respectively, "The Teachers of History in Secondary Schools" and "Travel and History." Dr. Beard's address concerned itself with the Japanese people, drawing an interesting picture of the effects of the recent disasters on this people. Dr. Beard appealed for a sympathetic attitude towards nations in other parts of the world, and urged the traveler to cultivate an understanding of characteristic customs.

Saturday morning was devoted to a joint session of both Associations, meeting in the Civil Engineering Building of the Johns Hopkins University. The main speakers were Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, and Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill, of Teachers College, Columbia University. The theme of the former was "The Present Status of the Social Studies," and was the outgrowth of his inquiry conducted during the past few months. Professor Gambrill's theme, closely related to the first, was "The Place and Function of History." He discussed mainly the present tendencies of history, both as to its subject-matter and the treatment of that subject-matter in the schoolroom. He called attention to the significance of the changing nature of history textbooks, a study of which he insisted would be very illuminating in tracing the new departures and new emphases of the past twenty years. Both Professors Dawson and Gambrill pointed out the

growing tendency to stress the present and to devote much time, formerly used in teaching history, to the consideration of current events. The discussion of these papers was lead by Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, who criticised the tendencies of educators always to fall back upon the theory that the great cure-all for every difficult situation lies in the proper training of teachers.

Following this meeting came the annual business session. After the usual formalities, resolutions were read and adopted acknowledging the hospitality of the people of Baltimore, and the following officers were elected: President, Professor John H. Latané, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; Vice-President, Mr. Alfred C. Bryan, High School of Commerce, New York City; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Lena C. Van Bibber, Maryland State Normal School, Towson. Elected members of the Council: Ruth Wanger, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Carlton J. H. Hayes, Columbia University.

A delightful luncheon was proffered the members of the Association by the Johns Hopkins University, after which a number of the visiting delegates motored to the historic town of Annapolis.

ANGLO-AMERICAN HISTORICAL CONFERENCE

All American teachers and students of history who find themselves within reach of London on July 8th are cordially invited by the Anglo-American Historical Committee to attend its third annual "interim conference," which will be held on that date in the Institute of Historical Research, on Malet Street, in the rear of the British Museum. The conference will be held in the afternoon, commencing at 2.30. Professor Clarence W. Alvord, on leave from the University of Minnesota, will open a discussion on "Differentiation with Regard to Historical Publications in the English Language." This will be followed by a discussion on "Means whereby the research of the various local, historical, archeological and record societies might be made

known and accessible to historical investigators generally." An opportunity will be afforded those attending the conference to dine together at University College, after which there will be an informal gathering at the Institute. The Secretary of the Institute, Dr. W. H. Meikle, will be glad to furnish further information respecting the conference. It is hoped that a good number of American scholars will be able to attend the conference, which promises, this year, as in the past two years, to be an enjoyable and profitable occasion.—W. G. L.

NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE

The teachers of history and government in the colleges and universities of New York State held their third annual meeting at the Lincklaen House, Cazenovia, New York, May 2-4, 1924. This is an unusual, if not a unique gathering. The group has no officers, no organization, no program and no dues. The plan started from a suggestion and a little effort on the part of Professors Notestein, of Cornell, and Tanner, of Syracuse, and others, two years ago. This latest meeting was the most largely attended and the most profitable of all, partly because the men now have become better acquainted.

The members begin to come into Cazenovia Friday afternoon, and the numbers continue to increase during Saturday forenoon. Sunday morning finds them setting out for home again. While in Cazenovia a few fish, a few play golf, but most eat together, hike or motor in small groups during the day. After dinner, accidental and informal groups gather in small circles in the hotel lobby and parlor and continue to talk shop along any line of thought that chances to get started. Occasionally the groups disintegrate and re-form. This is likely to continue until the midnight hour.

This year we were very fortunate in having with us Professors James Harvey Robinson and Carlton J. H. Hayes.—J. N. N.

WINSTON

A COMPLETE SERIES by SMITH BURNHAM

Head of the Department of History, Western State Normal School, Michigan

Three books covering Grades 4 to 8 inclusive. Each book by the same author—a significant fact—for it means that the vivid, fascinating and impelling style of Smith Burnham is in each book.

HERO TALES FROM HISTORY Fourth or Fifth Grade.

Aims to acquaint children with the names and achievements of the great men from Moses to Edison. Each tale, with its illustrations, inculcates a fundamental virtue but does not moralize. 371 Pages, 70 Illustrations.

OUR BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA Sixth Grade.

Prepares the child for a study of American history by first showing the origin and growth of our civilization in the Old World and how it came to the New World. 364 Pages, 245 Illustrations and Maps.

THE MAKING OF OUR COUNTRY Seventh and Eighth Grades.

This topical history presents our point of view gained from participation in world affairs. A special effort has been made to treat more adequately the last fifty years. Eight famous Ferris historical paintings, which hang in Independence Hall, are reproduced in four colors. 660 Pages, 334 Illustrations, 51 Maps.

A request from you will bring illustrated descriptive literature

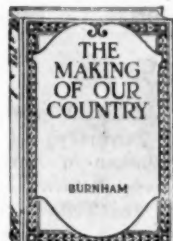
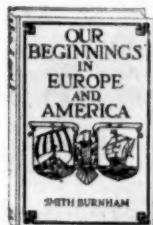
THE JOHN C. WINSTON COMPANY

1006-1016 Arch Street
Philadelphia

Dallas
San Francisco
Toronto

623-633 S. Wabash Avenue
Chicago

FOR TEXTBOOKS



Books on History and Government Published in the United States from March 29 to April 26, 1924.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Andrews, Charles M. Connecticut's place in colonial history. New Haven: Yale University Press. 49 pp. \$1.00.
- Barker, John. The British in Boston; being the diary of Lieut. John Barker, of the King's Own Regiment, from November 15, 1774, to May 31, 1776. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 73 pp. \$2.50.
- Bond, Beverly W., Editor. Dr. Daniel Drake's memoirs of the Miami Country, 1779-1794. Cincinnati: Abingdon Press.
- Burns, John F. Controversies between royal governors and their assemblies in the Northern American colonies. Villanova, Pa.: [Author] Villanova College. 447 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$4.25.
- Catlin, Geo. B. The story of Detroit. Detroit, Mich.: Detroit News. 783 pp. \$2.00.
- Malin, James C. The United States, 1865-1917; an interpretation. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas. 64 pp. 75c.
- Quaife, Milo M. The "Old Brigg" Adams. Detroit: Detroit Pub. Library.
- Tindall, William. The true story of the Virginia and the Monitor; the account of an eye witness. Richmond, Va.: Old Dominion Press. 90 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Burgh, W. G. de. The legacy of the Ancient World. N. Y.: Macmillan. 478 pp. (8 p. bibl.) \$6.00.
- Burkitt, Miles C. Our forerunners; a study of paleolithic man's civilization in Western Europe and the Mediterranean basin. N. Y.: Holt. 256 pp. \$1.00.
- Bury, John B., and others. The Hellenistic age. N. Y.: Macmillan. 150 pp. \$2.40.
- Windle, Bertram C. A. The Romans in Britain. N. Y.: Doran. 256 pp. \$4.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Adair, E. R. The sources for the history of the council in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. N. Y.: Macmillan. 96 pp. \$1.25.
- Little, A. G. Introduction of the observant friars into England. N. Y.: Oxford. 18 pp. 50c.
- Salzman, L. F. English industries of the Middle Ages. N. Y.: Oxford. 380 pp. \$3.50.
- Unwin, George. Samuel Oldknow and the Arkwrights; the industrial revolution at Stockport and Harple. N. Y.: Longmans. 276 pp. \$4.25.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Benians, Sylvia. From Renaissance to Revolution. N. Y.: Dutton. 215 pp. \$3.00.
- Krout, John A., and Mecham, J. L. A course for home students in modern European history. N. Y.: Columbia University Press. 69 pp.
- Turner, Edward R. Europe since 1789. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 862 pp. \$3.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Gibbons, Herbert A. America's place in the world. N. Y.: Century. 237 pp. \$2.00.
- Rawlinson, Lt.-Col. A. Adventures in the Near East, 1918-1922. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 371 pp. \$3.50.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Clark, M. G. Progress and patriotism [a course of study for grades 1-9]. Bloomington, Ill.: Pub. School Pub. Co. 407 pp. \$1.50.
- Webster, Hutton. History of Latin America. Boston: Heath. 255 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$1.64.

BIOGRAPHY

- Wilson, Woodrow. Robert E. Lee; an interpretation. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina. 48 pp. \$1.00.

- Levine, Isaac Don. The man Lenin. N. Y.: Seltzer. 216 pp. \$2.50.
- Parker, William B. The life and public services of Justin H. Morrill. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 386 pp. \$5.00.
- Kennedy, Elijah R. The real Daniel Webster. N. Y.: Revell. 271 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$2.00.
- Daniels, Josephus. The life of Woodrow Wilson, 1856-1924. Phila.: Winston. 381 pp. \$2.50.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Abbott, Grace. Immigration: select documents and case records. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 831 pp. \$4.50.
- Berman, Edward. Labor disputes and the President of the United States. N. Y.: Longmans. 284 pp. (6 p. bibl.) \$3.00.
- Ford, Henry J. Representative government. N. Y.: Holt. 325 pp. \$3.50.
- Haynes, Frederick E. Social politics in the United States. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 426 pp. \$3.50.
- Kallen, Horace M. Culture and democracy in the United States. N. Y.: Boni and Liveright. 347 pp. \$3.00.
- Kraps, Joseph J. A manual of civics. Salem, Oregon: J. J. Kraps Co.
- Poole, DeWitt C. The conduct of foreign relations under modern democratic conditions. New Haven: Yale University Press. 214 pp. \$2.00.
- Ways to peace; twenty plans selected from those submitted to the American Peace award. N. Y.: Scribner. 483 pp. \$3.00.
- Whelpley, James D. British American relations. Boston: Little, Brown. 331 pp. \$3.50.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- An Introduction to the History of International Law. Baron S. A. Korff (*American Journal of International Law*, April).
- Constitutional Development in the English-Speaking World. Sir James Aikins (*Constitutional Review*, April).
- The Pragmatic Politics of Mr. H. J. Laski. W. Y. Elliott (*American Political Science Review*, May).
- Recent Developments in Pre-History. George G. MacCurdy (*Scientific Monthly*, May).
- Patriotism and History. F. T. Spaulding (*Education*, May).
- An Apology for the Study of (Church) History. Rev. J. E. Wishart (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, April).
- Patriotism: with Some Aspects on the State. L. A. Shattuck (*Open Court*, April).
- The Socialist Movement in Great Britain and the United States. Bertram Benedict (*American Political Science Review*, May).
- Two Ways of History. G. G. Coulton (*History*, April). Also Some Observations in Conclusion, by F. M. Powicke, to whose article in the January issue Mr. Coulton makes answer.
- The Study of Military History. Maj. Charles A. King, Jr. (*Infantry Journal*, March).
- The Study of History in Sweden. Waldemar Westergaard (*American Scandinavian Review*, February).
- Notes on the Status of the Jewish Woman in Antiquity. Louis M. Epstein (*Jewish Quarterly Review*, April).
- Ezekiel's Division of Palestine among the Tribes. C. M. Mackay (*Princeton Theological Review*, January).
- The Age of Hesiod: a Study in Economic History. Albert A. Trever (*Classical Philology*, April).

- A Chapter of Ancient Sea Power: the Mithridatic Wars. Julius W. Pratt (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April).
- Pericles' Political Heirs, I. Allen B. West (*Classical Philology*, April).
- Early Methods of Trial. Frank E. Reader (*American Law Review*, March-April).
- The Indian Conception of America as an Island. Stephen Quinon (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, April).
- Juan de Zumárraga and the Pre-Columbian Records (concluded). Joaquín García Icazbalceta (*Inter-America*, April).
- Catherine de Medici and the French Wars of Religion. A. J. Grant (*History*, April). An historical revision. Monsieur Delcassé and the Entente Cordiale. André Mevil (*National Review*, April).
- Franco-German Relations since 1870. Elie Halévy (*History*, April).
- Germany and Monarchism. F. Sefton Delmer (*Nineteenth Century*, April).
- The Czar Nicholas II. Leo L. Tolstoy (*Contemporary Review*, April).
- Lenin: The Man and his Achievement. R. H. Bruce Lockhart (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
- Father Antonio Vieira, S. J., in Brazil. Leo J. Callanan (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Constantinople and its Crossways. Vaughan Cornish (*Army Quarterly*, April).
- THE BRITISH EMPIRE
- The Conception of the British Commonwealth. W. P. M. Kennedy (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
- Colonial Development of the Common Law. T. M. Dill (*Law Quarterly Review*, April).
- British Foreign Policy. H. A. L. Fisher (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
- The *Firma Unius Noctis* and the Customs of the Hundred. Carl Stephenson (*English Historical Review*, April).
- The Spirit of the British Soldier. Maj.-Gen. Sir George R. Scott Noncrist (*Quarterly Review*, April).
- Forfarshire as a Royal County. Charles Lowe (*Nineteenth Century*, April).
- Strange Usages in old English Churches. W. B. Hannon (*Irish Monthly*, April).
- The General Eyres of 1329-30. Helen M. Cam (*English Historical Review*, April).
- Peter Wentworth, II. J. E. Neale (*English Historical Review*, April).
- Beginnings of Calico-Printing in England. Parakunnel J. Thomas (*English Historical Review*, April).
- A Wazeer in Whitehall: an Episode in Jacobean Diplomacy. Lieut.-Col. C. P. Hawkes (*Cornhill Magazine*, March).
- John Colet: Educator of Boys. Rev. Edwin Ryan (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Sir George White at Ladysmith. Lieut.-Gen. Sir E. A. Altham (*Army Quarterly*, April).
- The Truth about Gordon Tartan. J. M. Bulloch (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).
- The Scottish Officers of Charles XII. George A. Sinclair (*Scottish Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The *Retrait Lignager* in Scotland. David B. Smith (*Scottish Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Cotton Industry and the Industrial Revolution in Scotland. W. H. Marwick (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).
- The Opposition to the 8th and 9th Articles of the Commercial Treaty of Utrecht. D. A. E. Harkness (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).
- John Knox as a Historian. W. C. Dickinson (*Holborn Review*, April).
- India through Chinese Eyes in the Fourth Century. A. D. N. C. Mehta (*Modern Review*, April).
- A Chapter in the History of India. C. M. MacInnes (*Dalhousie Review*, April).

APPROVED COURSES IN HISTORY

TWO YEAR COURSE

Webster's Early European History

Webster's Modern European History

or

Webster's Ancient History

Webster's Medieval and Modern History

THREE SEMESTER COURSE

I *Webster's Ancient Times*

II *Webster's Medieval and Early
Modern Times*

III *Webster's Modern Times*

ONE YEAR COURSE

Webster's World History

SOURCE BOOKS

Webster's Readings in Ancient History

Webster's Readings in Medieval and Modern History

Webster's Historical Source Book

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

Boston

New York

Chicago

Atlanta

Dallas

San Francisco

London

DRAMATIC EPISODES

in CONGRESS and PARLIAMENT

BY ETHEL HEDLEY ROBSON

Grade Supervisor, Chisholm, Minn.



Patrick Henry in his famous "Give me liberty or give me death" speech.

One of the Illustrations in "Dramatic Episodes".

IMMORTAL episodes of our nation's history presented in drama form, with the actual dialogue of historical characters. A junior high school parliamentary reader.

CONTENTS

The Stamp Act Meeting, Virginia, New York, London, 1775-1776.

First Continental Congress, Philadelphia, 1774. Virginia Convention, Richmond, 1775.

Second Continental Congress, Philadelphia, 1775.

Declaration of Independence, Philadelphia, 1776.

Constitutional Convention, Philadelphia, 1787.

Emancipation Proclamation, Cabinet Meetings, Washington, 1862-1863.

Cuban Independence Congress, Washington, 1898.

World War Congress, Washington, 1917.

Arms Conference, Washington, 1921.

PRICE \$1.25

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY PRESS

8 Arlington Street, Boston, Mass.

"An excellent type of school book."
—*The Historical Outlook*.

"Original in conception and unique in organization of material."
—*American Educational Digest*.

"The book will be of service to high school students who desire an easy and practical way of mastering the more ordinary parliamentary rules."
—*America*.

"Each of the ten DRAMATIC EPISODES is a masterpiece in literature as well as in history."
—*Journal of Education*.

"We should be pleased to use this book in our work."
—A. C. Thompson, Principal, State Normal School, Brockport, N. Y.

Historical Research in Bihar and Orissa. Sir Asutosh Mookerjee (*Calcutta Review*, April).

The Development of the Australian Constitution. Sir Robert Garran (*Law Quarterly Review*, April).

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

The Genesis of the War. H. W. C. Davis (*English Historical Review*, April).

The Other Side of the Hill, II. (*Army Quarterly*, April).

The German Defence during the battle of the Somme, July, 1916, derived from German sources.

Hutier's Rehearsal. Brig.-Gen. J. E. Edmonds (*Army Quarterly*, April). Riga, September 1-3, 1917.

Incidents of the Great War, II. (*Army Quarterly*, April).

The 16th Battalion, the Manchester Regiment at the Battle of St. Quentin, March 21, 1918.

The Organisation of Labour in the Army in France during the War and its Lessons. A. D. Lindsay (*Economic Journal*, March).

Organization of the Sanitary Service of the German Army during the World War. Chief Surgeon Pflugmacher (*Military Surgeon*, April).

War-Time Relations of America and Great Britain. Charles Seymour (*Atlantic Monthly*, May).

Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, April).

The Truth about the Treaty. (*Quarterly Review*, April).

The Flume-Adriatic Solution. (*Quarterly Review*, April).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

The History of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Herman L. Fairchild (*Science*, April 25, May 2).

The Importance of Stresses and Omissions in the Writing of American History. Charles H. McCarthy (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).

Powers of the Supreme Court to Nullify Acts of Congress. James F. Peake (*Constitutional Review*, April).

Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Catholic Historical Association. (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).

The Federalist in the Supreme Court. Charles W. Pierson (*Yale Law Review*, May).

Ancestry of the Wives of the Presidents of the United States. Natalie S. Lincoln (*D. A. R. Magazine*, April, May).

The Expedition of Panfilo de Narvaez (continued). Gonzalo Fernandez Oveido y Valdez (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, April). Edited by Herbert Davenport.

The Colonial Post Office in Virginia. Fairfax Harrison (*William and Mary College Quarterly*, April).

Development of American Architecture. Joseph Jackson (*Building*, May). I. Post-Revolutionary beginnings.

The Port of Dumfries, Prince William County, Virginia. Henry J. Berkley (*William and Mary College Quarterly*, April).

Mahlon Stacy, Quaker Founder of Trenton. Elizabeth B. Sattertwaitte (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).

Governor William Livingston as Apprentice, Writer and Executive. Louis H. Patterson (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).

The Royal Government in Georgia, 1752-1776. Percy S. Flippin (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, March).

The Printers to Continental Congress. John C. Fitzpatrick (*D. A. R. Magazine*, May).

The Men who Thought out the Revolution. John S. Bassett (*D. A. R. Magazine*, April, May). IV. Sam Adams, popular leader; V. Thomas Jefferson and the climax of the Revolution.

The Story of the American Flag. W. O. Hart (*American Law Review*, March-April).

The Stamp Act: New Jersey's Opposition to it. James C. Connolly (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).

Brodhead's Raid on the Senecas (1779). Rufus B. Stone (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, April).

Early Transportation in and around New Jersey. Cor-

- nelius C. Vermeule (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
- The Government of the City of Washington. Charles Moore (*D. A. R. Magazine*, April).
- Politics during the Administration of John Quincy Adams. (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).
- Absentee Ownership of Slaves in the United States in 1830. (*Journal of Negro History*, April).
- Feeding Slaves. R. H. Taylor (*Journal of Negro History*, April).
- The Occupation of Michigan. Elbridge Colby (*Michigan Law Review*, April). An incident in the history of military government.
- Some Aspects of the Santa Fe Trail. Ralph P. Bieber (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March).
- The Followers of Duden (continued). William G. Bek (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Shelby's Expedition to Mexico (continued). John N. Edwards (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- The Grand Coulee. Henry Landes (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April). In the "Big Bend Country" of Washington.
- The Grand Coulee in History. Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- Courts of the Cherokee Nation. William P. Thompson (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March).
- The Three Forks (of the Arkansas). Grant Foreman (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March).
- Student Life in the University of Georgia in the 1840's. Lester Hargrett (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, March).
- Location of County Seats in Iowa (continued). Jacob A. Swisher (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, April).
- Constitutional Provisions for the Suffrage in Iowa. Carl H. Erbe (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, April).
- Origin of County Names in Oklahoma. (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March).
- Missouri Verse and Verse Makers. M. M. Brashear (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- The New Journalism in Missouri. V. Walter B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Lincoln Diplomacy. (*Tyler's Quarterly*, April).
- The Texas State Military Board, 1862-1865. Charles W. Ramsdell (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Test Oath for the Clergy in Missouri. Thomas S. Barclay (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Missouri in the Confederacy. David Y. Thomas (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Davis, Bragg and Johnston in the Atlanta Campaign. Thomas R. Hay (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, March).
- Tad Lincoln's Father. Julia Taft Bayne (*Atlantic Monthly*, May). Girlhood memories of Lincoln.
- Military Reminiscences of Captain Richard T. Jacob. (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March.) Army life in Oklahoma, 1867-1871.
- The First Convention of the American Federation of Labor (continued). Alfred P. James (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, April).
- The New Constitution of Missouri. William W. Hollingworth (*St. Louis Law Review*, February).
- Historical Activities in the old Northwest, 1920-1923. Carl Wittke (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number, April).
- Historical Activities in the Trans-Mississippi Northwest, 1920-1922. John C. Parish (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number, April).
- Historical Activities in the South, 1917-1921. E. Merto Coulter (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number, April).
- Teaching Citizenship to the Filipinos by Local Self-Government. O. Garfield Jones (*American Political Science Review*, May).
- Cuba's Contribution to the Panama Canal. (*Bulletin of the Pan-American Union*, May.)

A Revised 1924 Edition is Now Ready of

GUITTEAU'S OUR UNITED STATES

A HISTORY FOR SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

- Method** The project method followed in OUR UNITED STATES groups related facts of history into large teaching units. The Teacher's Manual, following the text chapter by chapter, organizes the whole field of United States history into these projects.
- Style** It is neither a dry compilation of facts nor a detached, judicial inquiry, but a stirring personal story, full of color and drama, calculated at once to arouse interest and stimulate imagination.
- Emphasis** Throughout OUR UNITED STATES the larger emphasis has been placed upon our social and industrial history.
- Loyalty** The treatment of our country's development is one which will inspire worthy national pride, devotion to our country, and faith in its destiny.

SILVER, BURDETT AND COMPANY

New York

Newark

Boston

Chicago

San Francisco

Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies

Reprints of the reports by Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill are now available. The pamphlet contains all the material prepared by Prof. Gambrill which appeared in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for December, January and February.

It is the first complete description of recent experiments and tendencies in the Social Studies. It will prove valuable to teachers and administrators who are facing the problems of re-organizing courses of study.

PRICES

*1 copy, 20c postage prepaid.
10 to 24 copies, 17c each, postage prepaid*

*25 to 99 copies, 12c each, charges collect
100 or more copies, 10c each, charges collect*

McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

1619 RANSTEAD STREET

PHILADELPHIA

FOR GRAPH WORK IN
AMERICAN HISTORY

USE

Guetter's Statistical Tables

RELATING TO THE

Economic Growth of the United States

The preliminary edition, now ready, contains carefully prepared tables upon Population, Immigration, National Finance, Commerce, Banking, Agriculture, and the Extractive Industries.

Price . . . Seventy-five cents

McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

1619 RANSTEAD STREET

PHILADELPHIA

Visual Education Texts For The Social Studies A NATION WIDE SUCCESS

Rapidly Being Introduced by Progressive Teachers as Basal Texts

HOW A BILL BECOMES A LAW



Copies of the above reproduction from "We and Our Government" in poster size suitable for hanging in the classroom, will be sent free upon request.

THE AMERICAN VIEWPOINT SOCIETY, Inc.
61 West 48th Street New York City

When "We and Our Government", the first publication of the American Viewpoint Society came from the press eighteen months ago, eminent educators, appraising the new format, gave it as their opinion that it represented a tremendous psychological gain and would revolutionize textbook making. Progressive superintendents, principals, classroom teachers wrote enthusiastically, and said that "We and Our Government" was a very welcome departure from the customary dry-as-dust formula of the old-fashioned textbook, and that "it would lift the study of civics from a deadening task to a living experience." But the book had not yet been put to the most important test of all—classroom use over an extended period of time. Ample time has now gone by in which to give a definite answer. These epoch-making books are now in use as basal texts in thousands of classrooms throughout the United States. Teachers are more enthusiastic than ever and each month sees more and more schools adopting the American Viewpoint Society publications. Read what these teachers have to say:

California:—"We have purchased for use in our Ninth Grade the book 'We and Our Government'. We believe it the best book in its line and our teacher of civics remains enthusiastic as she uses it".—Miss Mildred E. Peckham, Principal Coalings Union Junior High School, Coalings.

Michigan:—"We think that 'We and Our Government' is a great help to our students in getting a clear intelligent insight into the workings of our government".—Mr. L. M. Tiffany, Principal Starr School, Royal Oak.

Pennsylvania:—"We are using 'We and Our Government' in some of our classes and find the book exceedingly practical".—Mr. R. O. Stoops, Superintendent of City Schools, York.

Florida:—"We are using 'We and Our Government' with real pleasure".—Miss Mary McLaughlin, Junior High School, St. Augustine.

Nevada:—"I am using 'We and Our Government' and 'We and Our History' in history and find them very helpful, especially in the teaching of the Constitution which is required in Nevada Schools. My boys and girls take great pleasure in studying the pictures, which are unusual in their number and quality".—Miss Ethel St. Clair, Orvis Ring School, Reno.

New Jersey:—"We are using 'We and Our Government' in our eighth grade classes. It is a most interesting and stimulating text on civics".—Mr. I. W. Travell, Superintendent of Public Schools, Ridgewood.

Massachusetts:—"We found 'We and Our Government' very satisfactory last year and we are using it again this year".—Miss Margaret Edna Turnback, Secretary The Bancroft School, Worcester.

Idaho:—"We and Our Government." I am using as a textbook and aside from appreciating its advantages myself, I find my pupils most enthusiastic about its study. The boys say, "Sister, this is great!"—Sister M. Monique, St. Rita's Convent, Idaho Falls, Idaho.

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| "We and Our Government" by Professors Jeremiah Whipple Jenks and Rufus Daniel Smith, | Price \$1.40 |
| "We and Our History" by Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, | Price \$1.80 |
| "We and Our Work" by Dean Joseph French Johnson, | Price \$2.07 |
| "The Spirit of America" by Angelo Patri, | Price \$1.20 |
| "We and Our Health", Book I, by Dr. E. George Payne, | Ready July 1 |

American
Viewpoint
Society, Inc.
61 West 48th St.
New York

I am interested in the following books of the American Viewpoint Society, Inc.: "We and Our Government" "We and Our Work," and "We and Our History." "The Spirit of America," "We and Our Health." Please send me full particulars.

Name

Street

City

State

Official Position.....

H. O. June 24.

WHERE GOOD MAPS ARE MADE



*This plant is here to serve you. It grew in response to the demand of
American educators for school maps*

Designed by Educators—Edited by Scholars—Produced by Craftsmen.

Our latest acquisition is a giant lithographic press, recently installed in our own plant.

We have been making our own color plates since we started in 1916 but for the press work we have been dependent on others.

The actual running of each edition of maps can now be more closely supervised than ever before, insuring even better workmanship than we have had in the past.

The plan and execution of the first Denoyer-Geppert map publications raised the whole standard of American map making, but we are not resting on our oars. We do not recognize a "last word" in our industry. If better maps can be made the Denoyer-Geppert Company will make them.

DENOYER-GEPPERT COMPANY

Scientific School Map Makers

5235-5257 Ravenswood Avenue

CHICAGO

DENOYER-GEPPERT CO.,
5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago.

(HO. 6-24)

Gentlemen:—I am interested in the following items: Please send me further particulars.

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ancient History Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Desk Outline Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> New Political Maps 64 x 78" |
| <input type="checkbox"/> European History Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Slated Outline Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Physical Maps |
| <input type="checkbox"/> American History Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Classical Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Colored Notebook Maps |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ancient History Atlases | <input type="checkbox"/> History Pictures | <input type="checkbox"/> Scriptural Maps |
| <input type="checkbox"/> European History Atlases | <input type="checkbox"/> History Models | <input type="checkbox"/> Industrial History Maps |
| <input type="checkbox"/> American History Atlases | <input type="checkbox"/> New Political Maps 44 x 58" | <input type="checkbox"/> Actual Relief Maps |

NAME..... POSITION.....

SCHOOL.....

ADDRESS.....

CITY..... STATE.....

If you do not want to cut your magazine, mention "THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK" when you write us.